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ABSTRACT

The articles presented in this journal issue include contributions that help meet the needs of all students. Six of the articles are based on programs presented at the Georgia School Counselor Association 2000 Fall Conference. The articles include: (1) "Effects of Group Counseling on Third Grade Students' Self-Esteem and Academic Achievement" (Lori Morrison, Cordelia Douzenis, James J. Bergin, Tonya Sanders); (2) "Game Shows for Career Guidance" (Christy Armstrong, Nancy Mason); (3) "Uniting Young and Old: Teaching Character Education through Intergenerational Programs" (Barbara R. Jones); (4) "Bibliotherapy for School Counselors: Practical Applications and Suggested Titles" (Susan R. Boes, Andrea Bragg, Linda Eddingfield, Charlotte Flores); (5) "Girl Talk for Teen Women: A School Based Discussion Group for Girls" (Oya Benn Townsley); (6) "Empowering and Transforming African American Adolescent Males: A Personal Reflection" (Deryl F. Bailey); (7) "GSCEPS: Georgia School Counselors Effective Practices" (Dana Edwards); (8) "The Tech Prep Advantage: The Other Path to College" (James S. McCallar); (9) "The Profile of a School Shooter and Prevention Strategies" (Kan V. Chandras); (10) "Preventing Violence in Schools: Nurture or Crack Down?" (A. Beth Peeples); (11) "Identifying and Assisting At-Risk Students in Schools" (Kan V. Chandras); (12) "Increased Risk of Depression in Compressed Adolescence" (Stacy N. Collins); and (13) "Transformed School Counseling Roles: Preparing Counselors for the 21st Century" (Carol Vanzile-Tamsen, Susan R. Boes). (Contains 5 Web sites, 9 appendixes, 2 tables and 211 references.) (JDM)

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Journal

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Fall, 2001

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Call for Submissions ..... Inside Back Cover

From the Journal Editor

I am pleased to announce that Susan McCarthy has been selected to be the new editor of the *GSCA Journal.* She and I worked together on this issue, and Susan will assume sole editorship for the 2002 issue. Susan has served on the editorial board since its inception, and has greatly contributed to the success of the *Journal.* In addition, Susan has served in numerous leadership positions in GSCA, including editor of the *Beacon.* The *Journal* will benefit from her expertise in school counseling.

On behalf of the editorial board, I thank each of the contributors to this issue of the *GSCA Journal.* Six of the articles are based on highly rated programs presented by the authors at the 2000 GSCA Fall Conference. Included in this issue is an informative article on the effects of group counseling on self-esteem and academic achievement that addresses accountability for school counseling programs. Two articles pertain to activities for elementary school students, three articles provide ideas that are especially useful for middle and secondary school counselors, and one article gives suggestions for using bibliotherapy at all levels. Preventing school violence and meeting the needs of students who are at risk are areas of concern for all educators. Two articles address characteristics of violent students and discuss strategies for preventing violence. Two additional articles present ideas for working with students who are at risk of dropping out of school and who are at risk for depression. The last article describes the changing emphasis on counseling roles and how to prepare school counselors for these roles. The excellent brief counseling activities in the GSCEPs column complete this information packed issue.

Thank you editorial board members for your hard work on this and previous issues. I would also like to thank Myra Chandler, Rose Merry Brock, and Joey Brewer for giving me the opportunity to serve as editor of the *GSCA Journal.* I have appreciated your support and your professionalism.

Fran Mullis
Co-Editor

From your GSCA President

The GSCA 2001 theme, "A Compass for 21st Century Counseling: Reflect, Renew, Refocus," is so very appropriately addressed through the publication of the GSCA *Journal*. The articles presented in this eighth issue of the GSCA *Journal* include contributions from the GSCA membership that help us more effectively meet the needs of all students. The development, implementation and assessment of the counseling programs presented in these articles do indeed provide direction for school counselors as we continually work to guide all students toward success.

GSCA appreciates the efforts of the contributing authors, the GSCA Editorial Board, and the GSCA *Journal* Editor, Dr. Fran Mullis. Their efforts in providing this publication will improve the services that GSCA offers to its membership.

GSCA proudly presents this 2001-02 issue of the GSCA *Journal* at a most extraordinary time in the history of our country. Although a time of overwhelming tragedy, sadness, and loss, we, as a people, also are experiencing a time of overwhelming unity, service, pride, and renewed spirit. Because of the September 11, 2001 terroristic attack on our country and the changes that are now taking place in our country, and the changes that will be taking place in the future, it is imperative that school counseling associations, school counseling programs, and school counselors become even more responsive to changes and new challenges.

GSCA will continue our strong and constant efforts to make a difference in the lives of our members and our students. As we embrace life, let us always remember to support one another.

Joey D. Brewer

Joey D. Brewer
President, 2001-02
Georgia School Counselors Association

Effects of Group Counseling on Third Grade Students' Self-Esteem and Academic Achievement

Lori Morrison
Cordelia Douzenis
James J. Bergin
Tonya Sanders

There has been a great deal of research on self-esteem (e.g., Canfield & Wells, 1976; Coopersmith, 1967; Piers & Harris, 1984); however, disagreement exists about how self-esteem is related to mental health (Lefrancois, 1999). Nonetheless, virtually every model of psychology recognizes self-esteem as an important human need (Corey, 2001). In-depth research is lacking on the exact nature of self-esteem, the mechanism of its achievement, and its impact on our values, goals, and motivation. However, studies indicate that negative behaviors such as delinquency, substance abuse, acting out, poor social skills, and anger management difficulties are associated with low self-esteem (Godleski, 1986; Purkey & Graves, 1970; Rubin, 1999).

Studies have been conducted to develop techniques and methods to enhance self-esteem in children. Children's self-esteem can be changed from negative to positive with motivation, influence, and guidance. When self-esteem is enhanced, negative behaviors often diminish (Lawrence, 1988; MacKeen & Herman, 1974; Schnee, 1972; Walker, 1991).

According to Riley (1995), group counseling interventions can create a change in one's attitude about him/herself and lead to enhanced self-esteem. Group counseling has been used with growing frequency to help children identify problematic issues and behaviors and to teach new skills and behaviors to improve children's thoughts

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and feelings about themselves. Several ways suggested to help children gain more positive self-esteem include developing self-awareness (of feelings, thoughts, abilities, desires, needs), self-acceptance (not disowning self), and self-expression (using assertion appropriately) (Coakley, 1993; Corey & Corey, 1997; Myrick, 1993; Wilcox & Mitchell, 1977). Because group counseling interventions with children seem to facilitate changing negative behaviors and rebuilding self-esteem, group counseling is highly recommended for use in schools.

Improved self-esteem can provide additional benefits for students. Many studies have indicated that there is a significant relationship between self-esteem and a student's achievement in school (e.g., Gadzella & Williamson, 1984; Purkey & Graves, 1970; Rubin, 1999). When children begin feeling better about themselves, their grades improve. In contrast, students who perceive themselves in a negative way tend to have lower academic achievement. Therefore, group counseling that enhances self-esteem of children may also provide indirect effects on academic achievement.

The purpose of this study was to determine what effects group counseling had on third grade students' self-esteem and academic achievement. It was hypothesized that group counseling in schools may lead to increased self-esteem for children, and this could subsequently result in higher academic performance.

METHOD

Participants

The participants for this study consisted of 24 third grade students at an elementary school located in a low to middle class rural southeast Georgia neighborhood. The ethnic composition of the participants was 14 white students, 9 African-American students, and 1 Hispanic student. There were 10 females and 14 males who participated in this study. Participants were randomly assigned to either an experimental group, which received group counseling, or to a no-treatment control group.

Instrumentation and Materials

Self Esteem. The *Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale* (Piers & Harris, 1984) was used to assess each participant's self-esteem. This instrument was chosen for use in this study because it directly measures a child's perceptions of self. The Piers-Harris was designed and standardized for use with children ages 8 to 18 years of age. The instrument is a self-report questionnaire consisting of 80 items that can be given to students individually or in a group. This inventory gives a total score as well as scores for six subscales: Behavior, Intellectual School Status, Physical Appearance and Attributes, Anxiety, Popularity, and Happiness and Satisfaction. A higher score on each subscale represents a greater degree of the attribute being measured. The "test-retest reliability coefficients range from .42 to .96 and internal consistency estimates for the total score range from .88 to .93" (Piers & Harris, p. 57). Construct, content, and criterion-related validity have been established through numerous studies.

Achievement. Achievement was measured using students' grade point averages (GPA) from student progress reports. The GPA for each student was determined by the average of numeric grades for all subjects (e.g., reading, math). The first and second progress reports of the school year were used which were based on the first and second nine weeks of school, respectively. The GPA from the first progress report served as a pre-measure of achievement for each student while the GPA obtained from the second progress report was used as a post-measure of student achievement.

Group Counseling Materials. The researcher/counselor developed eight group counseling sessions designed to enhance the self-esteem of children; these sessions were based on the work of Morganett (1994). An outline of goals of these sessions is included in the Appendix.

PROCEDURES

In September 2000, all students in third grade (N = 112) were given a take home parental permission form. Twenty-four students who volunteered and also returned parental permission forms served as participants in the study. A pretest-posttest control group design was used in this experimental study. The participants were first randomly assigned to either the experimental or control group.

All participants completed the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale as a pre-measure of self-esteem. Beginning in October 2000, the experimental group participated in eight sessions of group counseling with the researcher; members of the control group did not meet for group counseling. At the end of November 2000, the Piers-Harris was administered to all participants again to obtain a post-measure of self-esteem. The researcher also collected participants' GPAs from the first and second student progress reports to serve as pre- and post-measures of achievement.

After data collection was completed, all students in the control group were then offered an opportunity to participate in the same type of group counseling sessions that were provided to the experimental group members.

RESULTS

Descriptive statistics associated with the pre- and posttest scores for the Piers-Harris subscales, Piers-Harris total score, and student achievement are presented in Table 1. Initial inspection of these descriptive statistics indicates that the experimental group had lower pretest means than the control group on all measures. Following the experimental period, the experimental group had higher posttest means on the Piers-Harris subscales of Behavior, Intellectual and School Status, Physical Appearance and Attributes, and Anxiety. In addition, the posttest mean for Piers-Harris total score was higher for the experimental group. Following the experimental period, the control group possessed higher posttest means for the Piers-Harris subscales of Popularity and Happiness and Satisfaction as well as for achievement as measured by GPA.

TABLE 1

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PIERS-HARRIS SUBSCALES, TOTAL SCORE, AND ACHIEVEMENT

Score/Group	Pretest Mean	Pretest SD	Posttest-Actual Mean	Posttest-Actual SD	Posttest-Adjusted Mean
Behavior					
Experimental Group	10.17	3.33	13.42	2.35	14.14
Control Group	12.83	2.48	12.42	2.39	11.69
Intellectual/School Status					
Experimental Group	11.17	4.20	13.25	2.18	13.47
Control Group	12.42	2.07	12.83	2.69	12.61
Physical Appearance/Attributes					
Experimental Group	7.92	3.75	9.83	3.01	10.35
Control Group	9.58	1.83	9.67	1.72	9.15
Anxiety					
Experimental Group	7.58	4.60	10.58	3.15	11.38
Control Group	10.08	2.19	10.50	2.47	9.70
Popularity					
Experimental Group	6.58	2.81	8.42	3.18	8.86
Control Group	8.00	2.30	8.58	1.68	8.14
Happiness/Satisfaction					
Experimental Group	6.17	2.59	8.42	1.83	8.97
Control Group	8.50	1.09	8.67	1.30	8.11
Total Score					
Experimental Group	48.58	16.59	63.17	13.17	66.78
Control Group	60.83	7.91	61.75	8.24	58.14
Achievement (GPA)					
Experimental Group	83.75	7.20	81.42	12.28	85.64
Control Group	90.17	5.44	92.25	5.15	88.03

Note. Experimental Group (n = 12); Control Group (n = 12)

To control for initial differences in the self-esteem of students in the two groups, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) test was performed on each of the Piers-Harris subscales, Piers-Harris total score, and achievement (GPA). These tests were used to determine if significant differences in self-esteem posttest means existed between the experimental and control groups. The corresponding pretest score was used as a covariate in each analysis. The adjusted posttest mean values are presented in Table 1.

The ANCOVA summary table is presented in Table 2. Results indicate that significant differences were found between the experimental and control groups for the subscales of Behavior and Anxiety as well as for the Piers-Harris total score. No significant differences were found between the two groups for Intellectual and School Status, Physical Appearance and Attributes, Popularity, and Happiness and Satisfaction. In addition, no significant difference existed in achievement as measured by GPA.

TABLE 2

ANCOVA RESULTS FOR PIERS-HARRIS SUBSCALES, TOTAL SCORE, AND ACHIEVEMENT

Score	Treatment MS	Error MS	F (2, 22)
Behavior	29.41	3.23	9.11**
Intellectual/School Status	4.27	4.84	0.88
Physical Appearance/Attributes	7.98	2.78	2.87
Anxiety	14.95	2.83	5.28*
Popularity	2.90	4.03	0.72
Happiness/Satisfaction	3.21	1.72	1.87
Total Score	360.50	64.95	5.55*
Achievement (GPA)	26.73	18.94	1.41

*p (.05; **p (.01

DISCUSSION

The results support the hypothesis that third grade students involved in group counseling did demonstrate higher levels of self-esteem in two specific areas — Behavior (e.g., students perceived themselves to have better behavior) and Anxiety (e.g., students reported less anxiety) — and in overall self-esteem. These findings support previous research regarding the positive effects of group counseling on children's self-esteem (Coakley, 1993; Godleski, 1986; Mackeen & Herman, 1974; Riley, 1995). The results did not support the hypothesis that third grade students involved in group counseling would demonstrate higher levels of academic achievement. This finding may have been due to the limited time frame of the study.

In addition to the statistical results, the researcher made the following observations throughout the group experience: the students valued differences and others' opinions, feelings, and thoughts. The students seemed excited to come to group and share what they had gained from being involved in group counseling. The following are sample responses of students regarding what they learned from participating in the group sessions: "If someone doesn't believe in what you believe in, that's ok, I can still believe," "If someone doesn't value what you value it's ok, I can still value it," "It's ok to feel any way you want," "Someone can be just as beautiful on the inside as the outside, or someone may not be as pretty on the outside as the inside, but the inside is what counts," "It's important to be pretty on inside and outside," "You need to respect people, wait your turn to talk, be nice, and treat others the way you want to be treated," "If you hurt someone's feelings, apologize, treat others the way you want to be treated," "Respect people if you want to be respected," "Talk to others about your feelings," "Not to get mad because you get in trouble, express feelings when feeling down," "Care about people, share feelings, not hitting anymore," "Share with parents and friends, and be pretty on the inside." These statements provide evidence of the benefits of the students' participation in the group counseling sessions.

Implications for School Counselors

Several implications can be derived from these findings. Counselors should continue to use group counseling as an effective method of enhancing self-esteem. In addition, counselors should replicate some of the activities of the small group counseling setting in the classroom guidance context so that larger groups of students can benefit in the area of self-esteem. Counselors should also make teachers aware of how group counseling goals can be used to encourage self-esteem development among students in their classrooms. Many of the goals used in the group counseling setting (e.g., understanding that everyone has different strengths and weaknesses, sharing feelings, relating well with others) directly parallel some of the components of character education programs that are being implemented in schools today.

Limitations of the Study

The participants in the study were third graders, so the results can only be generalized to this age group in a similar population. In addition, the study was limited by small sample size. Experimenter bias was also a potential limitation as the researcher and the

leader of the group counseling sessions was the same individual.

Another limitation may have been the use of a nine-week period that was concurrent with the group counseling sessions to measure academic achievement. Teachers indicated that academic achievement went down from first progress reports to second progress reports. First progress reports were a review of second grade material and beginning third grade material. Second progress reports were all based on third grade material.

Recommendations for Future Research

The following are recommendations that should be considered when conducting future research on this topic. A later measure of achievement (perhaps the third progress report) should be obtained to allow sufficient time to determine the potential effects of enhanced self-esteem on academic achievement. Using second and third progress reports would ensure that comparable achievement (e.g., based on third grade material only) was being measured.

Follow-up data should be collected to determine if there are enduring effects on self-esteem for students who participated in group counseling. In addition, future research should include data from teachers regarding their observations about changes in student behavior that may have resulted from participation in group counseling.

The sample size should be increased in an effort to increase the generalizability of results. Multiple experimental (counseling) and control groups could be used for this purpose. Future researchers might also consider reversing the groups (i.e., the control group becomes the experimental group) at the end of the experiment; the experiment would then be repeated, and self-esteem and achievement results would be measured again for both groups following this second phase of experimentation.

CONCLUSION

Previous research has shown that improved self-esteem of children has been associated with a reduction in negative behaviors and increased academic achievement. The current study demonstrated positive effects of group counseling on the self-esteem of third grade students. Elementary school counselors should consider incorporating group counseling activities focused on enhancing children's self-esteem into their guidance programs.

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APPENDIX

OUTLINE OF GOALS FOR GROUP COUNSELING SESSIONS

Session 1: Getting Started

1. Introduce children to the group experience and help them get acquainted with each other.
2. Establish ground rules and discuss the issue of confidentiality.
3. Discuss the purpose of the group and prepare children for the sessions ahead.
4. Help children become aware that the group is a safe environment for sharing ideas, feelings, and behaviors.
5. Identify feelings as a special part of us and give children practice expressing feelings.

Session 2: Feely Feelings

1. Develop the norm of reviewing what happened during the previous session and give children an opportunity to discuss anything they still had questions about.
2. Help children learn that sharing feelings is an important part of healthy, lasting relationships and of feeling good about ourselves.

Session 3: Pictures of Me

1. Give the children the chance to share ideas of who they are, what they are capable of, and what they would like to become capable of.
2. Help children understand that people have different strengths and weaknesses and that these differences are OK.

Session 4: Changing and Growing

1. Present the idea that everything in life changes as it grows, matures, and dies within its own life span.
2. Establish the idea that we have more control over some of these changes and less control over others.
3. Help children identify the things they can and cannot change.

Session 5: I Can

1. Instill the idea that each person has special talents and gifts to use for his or her own good and the good of others.
2. Help children recognize feelings of being capable.
3. Encourage children to share their talents with others in the group.

Session 6: What Do I Value?

1. Help children recognize what they value and encourage them to articulate their values to others.
2. Help children realize that what we value makes us unique and that such differences are not just OK but are what makes us really special.
3. Encourage children to accept others' differing values.
4. Introduce the idea that what we value is a special part of ourselves and shouldn't be given up just to be liked by others.

Session 7: Appreciating Friends

1. Give children the opportunity to explore and clarify what they value about friends.
2. Help children understand how to tell their friends what they value about them and about the friendship.
3. Encourage awareness that friendship skills are important to us and to getting along in life and that we feel good about ourselves when we can be a good friend to others.

Session 8: Saying Good-Bye

1. Give children the opportunity to review and process what they learned during the group experience.
2. Reinforce children's good feelings about who they are.
3. Model saying good-bye to one another in a healthy way and help group members learn that saying good-bye marks the beginning of a new phase of their relationship.

Game Shows for Career Guidance

Christy Armstrong
Nancy Mason

Game shows have been considered popular family entertainment from the 1950's when "To Tell the Truth", "The Price is Right", and "What's My Line?" aired on national television, to the present day when shows include "Hollywood Squares" and "Who Wants to be a Millionaire?" Game shows began on the three major networks, airing during prime time and in the afternoons, and became topics of discussion in many households.

Over the years, school counselors have found creative ways to use game show formats in classroom guidance and in school wide programs. Using game shows in career guidance lessons allows students to participate in fun and imaginative learning experiences.

What's My Line?

One of the authors began What's My Line? as an introduction to Career Month in the mid-1970's. These are the basic rules of play:

1. Four panelists (students) are blindfolded.
2. Someone who has an unusual career enters. The mystery guest may be the actual person who has the unusual occupation, or may be a person role-playing.
3. The mystery guest shows the audience a large card on which the name of his/her career is written.
4. The game show host has a flip chart with the numbers 100, 90, 80, 70, 60, 50, 40, 30, 20, 10, 0.
5. Panelists take turns asking "yes" or "no" questions about the person's job. The panel loses 10 points for any "no" answers given.
6. Panelists try to guess the mystery person's career before running out of points.
7. Additional mystery guests try to "stump the panel".

Career Feud

Another popular game show, "Family Feud", is the inspiration for "Career Feud". This game show can be presented school wide, to one grade level, or to a single classroom.

School Wide Activity: When using the activity school wide, all students are given a survey to complete. The 30 survey questions for kindergarten and first grade students have four to six possible answers for each question.

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Students circle one answer.
Examples:

1. Name something a firefighter uses.
   Ladder Axe Water Hose Fire truck
   Net
2. Name an animal a zookeeper might feed.
   Zebra Bear Lion Monkey Seal
   Elephant

Surveys for all other grade levels are open ended. These are examples from a fifth grade survey:

1. Name a job related to the health needs of others. _____
   _____
2. Name something produced by assembly line workers._____
   _____

It is recommended that counselors obtain assistance in tallying student responses. When using the activity school wide, several assemblies can be organized in which panelists from one grade attempt to guess the most popular answers given by students in another grade level. For example, third grade students might try to guess the answers given most often on the second grade surveys. Rules of play for younger students are as follows:

1. Teachers select a total of four or five panel members for each of the two teams.
2. One panel member per team comes forward and attempts to answer the question presented by the game show host (counselor).
3. The student who rings the bell first gives his/her guess about the answer given most often by students in the other grade.
4. The panel member from the other team gives his/her best guess as to the most popular answer given on the survey.
5. A judge at the back of the room tells which answer was given most often ("Survey says _____").
   The team that guesses the answer most frequently given receives one point and wins the privilege of answering first for all of round one. For each question, one point is given to the team guessing the most popular survey responses.
6. Several rounds of play may take place with new panel members participating each time.
7. The team with the most points wins.

Rules of play for older students are the same except for the scoring procedure. The judge tells how many surveyed students gave an answer selected by a panelist. The team receives that number of points. For example, if 37 students who were surveyed gave the same answer as the panel member, the team receives 37 points.

Grade Level/ Classroom Activity: In order to play "Career Feud" as a grade level activity, the counselor will need to do some preliminary planning. The first thing to consider is finding a space large enough to hold all of the students from that grade level. For a particularly large grade level, it might be easier to divide the group in half and play the game twice. Another solution to this problem could be to pair up teachers from that grade level and have those classes compete against each other in one of their classrooms.

As previously described with the school wide activity, surveys are given to the students to fill out ahead of time. The counselor would then need to tally the results and choose at least 6 questions, along with the top 4 or 5 answers for

each question, to use during the game. The answers, and the number of students who chose that response, should be written on poster board or transparencies. (The number of students who chose that answer will also be the points given for that particular answer. For example, if 24 students chose "Electrician" as their response, then that answer would equal 24 points.)

When it is time for the activity, the counselor explains the rules of Career Feud, and asks for 10-12 volunteers to be the contestants for the first few rounds and one student to keep score. The game is played as it was previously described, with a few exceptions. Each panel member will have the opportunity to answer the same question for that round. If a panel member gives a response that is not one of the top 4 or 5 answers, he/she would receive a strike. If the team reaches 3 strikes, then the opposing team collaborates to guess one of the remaining answers, to see if they can steal the points for that round.

Name That Job

The classroom guidance activity for "Name That Job" is based on the game show "Name That Tune". Because this activity requires students to apply their knowledge of careers, it is best for third grade and higher. It can be used as an entire classroom guidance lesson or at the end of a career lesson to serve as a review.

The rules are as follows:

1. The counselor divides the class into two teams and explains that the objective of this activity is to see which team can guess the most careers being described.
2. One volunteer from each team is called to the front of the classroom to be the contestants. Before any clues are given, the contestants must try to guess how many clues they will need in order to be able to name the job being described.
3. The first contestant says, "I can name that job in 5 clues." It is up to the second contestant to decide if he/she can name the job with one less clue. If so, the second contestant would say, "I can name that job in 4 clues."
4. The challenge continues between contestants until one contestant no longer feels confidant that he/she could name the job with the number of clues left. At that point, the contestant will challenge his/her opponent by saying, "Name that job".
5. The counselor then gives the contestant the appropriate number of clues and asks him/her to try and guess the job being described. If an incorrect answer is given, the opponent then has the opportunity to hear one additional clue and is asked to guess the job.
6. Play continues until one contestant is able to successfully name the career that the counselor is describing.
7. If neither contestant is able to guess correctly when all 5 clues have been given, then the contestant with the next turn could ask for help from a member of their team.
8. Once the career has been discovered, the counselor should ask the class what else they know about this career, to facilitate the discussion.
9. Two new volunteers would then be chosen to try and guess the next career.
10. Points are assigned to the teams based on the number of correct responses given by their team members.

Examples of jobs for student to guess:

School Counselor
Clue # 1 = work with children
Clue # 2 = work in a school
Clue # 3 = work in a classroom
Clue # 4 = work in an office
Clue # 5 = help students with their problems

Police Officer
Clue # 1 = help people
Clue # 2 = wear a uniform
Clue # 3 = keep people safe
Clue # 4 = wear a badge
Clue # 5 = enforce the law

CONCLUSION

Because students are being exposed to career guidance at a much younger age than in the past, counselors are continually looking for new and exciting ways to present career concepts. Game shows offer a fun and interactive format, as well as an enriching experience, for students participating in career guidance. Giving students the opportunity to explore a variety of careers beginning in elementary school helps to build the foundation they need to choose a career in the future. Using game shows for career guidance gives counselors another tool to use in order to help students achieve this goal.

Uniting Young and Old: Teaching Character Education Through Intergenerational Programs

Barbara R. Jones

Two hundred years ago our leaders recognized the need for a public education system to bring about the widespread teaching of "civics". Scott Peck (1993) states in his book, *A World Waiting to Be Born*, that the "civics" those honorable and visionary leaders referred to was not a study of political science, but rather a broader definition of a "deep-seated set of values that would be a foundation for responsible citizenship...values necessary to maintain the health of democracy" (Peck, p. 4). Although we rarely hear the word "civics" anymore, Character Education and the 27 character traits incorporated in that curriculum have become an integral part of educational reform. Counselors have been teaching to the heads and hearts of students for years, so it is no surprise that in many schools the coordinator of the Character Education Program is the school counselor.

One of the many, and certainly one of the best, ways to teach the 27 character traits is through experiential learning. Intergenerational programs that partner older adults with young children offer this type of experience. An intergenerational program involves activities that promote cooperation, personal interactions and exchanges between these two generations. Through various activities the character traits move from abstract to concrete. Partnerships offer opportunities to demonstrate cooperation, tolerance, compassion, respect, fairness, kindness, courtesy, generosity, and creativity. Aristotle said, "We become just by the practice of just actions, self-controlled by exercising self-control, and courageous by performing acts of courage" (as quoted in Morgan, 2000). The benefits to both students and older adults reach across generations and enrich the community at large. Even the word community begins to take on a deeper and broader meaning.

Unfortunately, there is little research on programs involving interactions between the old and the young. Research on older adults has revolved around Health Care Plans and Social Security while studies on young children have focused primarily on education. Few have asked questions about the impact of intergenerational involvement on the senior role models or on the children. However, the literature on intergenerational programs supports the pairing of young and old.

Rationale For Intergenerational Programs

Our world is changing. One of the most recent dramatic changes is the increase in

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the older population. Peter Uhlenberg (2000) states that in 1900 the ratio of children to older adults was 10:1. Today the ratio is 2:1. As baby boomers continue to live longer,it is projected that by 2030 the ratio will be almost even at 1.2:1 (para. 1). This untapped resource provides an opportunity for counselors to develop intergenerational programs in their schools.

Our families are changing. These changes affect the amount of time parents are able to commit to care taking. According to recent statistics over 60% of mothers with children under 6 work outside the home (Uhlenberg, 2000). Children depend on parents for training, supervision and care taking, and older adults often have the time and wisdom to provide those essentials.

High rates of pregnancies for single women and divorce continue to leave children in single parent families. By 1995 over 30% of all children were in single parent homes (Uhlenberg, 2000). Schools are often placed in the position of having to provide the much needed supervision and training for these children. Mentoring programs involving older adults are often able to address the needs for tutoring, companionship and just being together with someone who cares.

These societal changes have created the opportunity for young and old to form symbiotic relationships. School counselors are in a position to provide the structure for that to happen.

Objectives of the Program

The main objective of an Intergenerational Program is to make the character traits relevant through experiences with older adults. Attaching the emotions of joy, curiosity, anticipation, excitement, and a sense of accomplishment to the character traits brings them alive for the student. Learning that occurs through the emotions becomes a part of who we are and tends to be retained longer.

Through building relationships, children become more aware of the commonalities they share with older adults. Friendships help to dissolve stereotypes, and children begin to develop a sense of connection and an appreciation for those who are different. An intergenerational program also gives each individual an opportunity to discover his/her own strengths and abilities through participation in the various activities.

Steps To Creating A Program

The first step is to locate senior facilities near your school. You may want to visit Senior Citizen Centers, Residential Care/Assisted Living facilities, retirement groups from large companies, church groups, or the American Association for Retired People (AARP) groups. It is important that you assess the functioning level of the adults to be able to match those with your program. Visiting the older adults and interacting with them can accomplish this. The director of the center can also give you valuable information regarding the abilities of the seniors. It is helpful to know the physical mobility, hearing and vision capabilities, and general well being of the seniors. In the appropriate environment, it is often a new and positive experience for the child to be the stronger one. For example, children from my school read stories to their older friends whose vision is poor.

The next step is to enlist support from the administration, teachers, and parents. Often grants are available through the county school system or other organizations. Although well worth the effort, creating an Intergenerational Program requires a great deal of hard work and time for everyone involved. Your support system brings energy and enthusiasm to those efforts. Do not try to do this alone.

The third step is to begin to educate your students about the elderly. Young children may be uncomfortable or even fearful of the elderly if not properly prepared. Books, videos, journaling, sharing times, storytelling and role playing are only a few of

the many ways to accomplish this. This is Character Education in action.

Fourth, involve the parents from the beginning. Send letters explaining the program and the activities you have planned. Get signed consent forms for all activities away from the school. You may also want to check with the county office to see if there is liability insurance that covers the volunteers when they come to visit and work with your students.

The final step is to delegate the planning and organization. An advisory board or council is helpful if available; however, a coordinator is a must (Sellars, 1998). The coordinator is assigned the responsibilities of scheduling, planning activities, arranging transportation and documenting events with pictures, journals and notes. The coordinator also handles securing funds to support the program.

Program Activities

Our bus trips to the senior centers were arranged in the same basic manner as a school field trip, and funded either through school funds or occasionally through grant money. We try to make at least two or three trips a year.

Be creative with activities and encourage your students to be creative. However, with young children it is best to keep it simple, especially in the beginning. Our first visit to a local nursing home included delivering baskets filled with candy, singing a couple of short songs, and taking a few pictures. My students are second graders, so on one visit we read them a book. On our next visit we interviewed them about what second grade was like for them. We have a courtyard at our school that needs attention, and we hope to have a joint gardening project next year.

The activities that you choose depend on the abilities and interests of your adults and of your students. Very young children would love to have older adults join them for sandbox activities. You may want to coordinate with the Physical Education teacher and have the Seniors come for stretching, dancing, or just movement to music (McQueen, 1998).

George Hopkins (2000) suggested the Senior Pen Pal program which encourages writing between the two groups. Students practice valuable writing skills as well as share experiences with the older adults. This activity also helps children build a character vocabulary using words like kindness, appreciate, grateful, cheerful, and cooperation.

Students may want to perform a play for their older friends, put together puzzles or scrapbooks, learn magic tricks to show them, play board games or cards with them. You may want to plan with the art teacher to have the seniors come during art class to work together on a group mural. Enlist the help of a parent to video an activity to show at the next gathering. Any activity that fosters interaction and fun encourages friendships between young and old.

Program Benefits

In addition to support for your school's Character Education program, there are other benefits of an Intergenerational Program. Positive relationships enhance personal and social development of children. They learn valuable life skills necessary to become responsible adults. Intergenerational programs help students become aware of career opportunities with the elderly. Uhlenberg (2000) states "service to older persons could be one of the most meaningful ways of teaching children that they can be productive and useful members of the community" (para. 6).

This is a reciprocal relationship, and there are many benefits for the older adults also. It offers them a chance to be around young people and challenges biases that often form toward children, such as believing that they are problems rather than assets. Intergenerational programs give the older adults a sense of purpose, and they feel

useful and more connected. Young people bring an energy and a freshness to experiences that is contagious. Most of all, students and older adults forming friendships and sharing experiences builds a community feeling. This sense of community enhances the general well-being of our entire society. Nancy Henkin and Eric Kingson (1998/1999) observed that an intergenerational agenda widens the circle of 'we' (para. 19).

There are several ways to evaluate if the program is accomplishing what was intended. One way is to give a pre-test and a post-test on character traits and the ability to recognize them in the real world. Another idea is a survey of seniors, students and parents to see if the program has made a difference to them personally. One of the best ways is to observe the expressions, comments and body language of the children and older adults. The comment most often heard from our children was, "Can we stay longer?" The comment heard most often from the adults was, "Can you come more often?'

CONCLUSION

Uhlenberg (2000) states that contemporary society often views both young and old, who are excluded from the work force, as unproductive and dependent. Fortunately, this attitude is beginning to change. Intergenerational programs challenge this worldview and call us to shift to a more respectful approach. In a recent review of three books on aging, Judith Gonyea (1999) talks about a new concept of "productive aging" that focuses on the importance of active and meaningful roles for older citizens (para. 2). This new perspective challenges us to look at these two groups and appreciate the varied talents and abilities they have to offer. Margaret Mead (as quoted in Gonyea) noted, "the quality of a nation is reflected in the way it recognizes that its strength lies in its ability to integrate the wisdom of its elders with the spirit and vitality of its children and youth" (para. 1). An Intergenerational Program in collaboration with the Character Education curriculum creates an environment for this integration to occur.

Listed below are intergenerational web sites and resources.

University Center for Social and Urban Research-Generations Together
121 University Place, Suite 300
Pittsburgh, PA 15260
(412) 648-7150
Fax: (412) 648-7446
e-mail: newmans@pitt.edu
www.pitt.edu/~gti

http://www.nih.gov/nia

http://www.kin-net.org/

http://www.aoa.dhhs.gov/

http://www.nationalservice.org/

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Henkin, N. & Kingson, E. (1998/1999). Advancing an intergenerational agenda for the twenty-first century. Generations, 22, 99-105.

Hopkins, G. R. (2000, December). How important are intergenerational programs in today's schools? Phi Delta Kappan, 82, 317-319.

McQueen, L. (1998, November/December). Kindergarten in the nursing home. Nursing Homes, 47(11), 48-50.

Morgan, M.A. (2001, Winter). Bibb County character education update. The Reporter: Character Education, p. 28.

Peck, M. S. (1993). A world waiting to be born: Civility rediscovered. New York: Bantam Books.

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Bibliotherapy for School Counselors: Practical Applications and Suggested Titles

Susan R. Boes
Andrea Bragg
Linda Eddingfield
Charlotte Flores

Bibliotherapy is the use of directed reading by counselors to help schoolchildren of all ages gain insight into personal problems, assist with solving problems related to behavioral change (Riordan & Wilson, 1989), and develop self-awareness and positive attitudes (Adler & Foster, 1997). It is an easily accessible and useful intervention. This intervention offers student clients the opportunity to discuss personal thoughts and feelings about the book being read with their school counselors (Pardeck, 1990b).

An educational tool especially useful with brief counseling (Riordan, Mullis, & Nuchow, 1996), bibliotherapy is conducive to the school setting. Bibliotherapy as a vicarious experience of a character's conflicts and responses (Calhoun, 1987; Karlin & Brueau, 1985; Newton, 1995) can be beneficial in authenticating life situations (Timmerman, Martin, & Martin, 1989). Further, allowing students to explore approaches to dilemmas without adverse consequences can bring insight into one's own issues (Newton). Calhoun suggests bibliotherapy is particularly helpful to ethnic minority students. Specifically, multicultural literature offers characters and situations ethnic minority students can identify with (Ford, Tyson, Howard, & Harris, 2000). As a developmental tool, bibliotherapy can be used to encourage the growth of students' cultural awareness, empathy towards others, and emotional maturity (Ford, et al.; Timmerman, et al.; Hebert & Kent, 2000).

Bibliotherapy, although not well researched (Riordan & Wilson, 1989), continues to become a growing treatment approach, particularly when used as adjunctive to other counseling techniques (Pardeck & Pardeck, 1985). The purpose of this article is to acquaint school counselors and counselors-in-training (CIT) with the interactive and facilitative use of bibliotherapy with school-age children and adolescents. A short review of the literature on bibliotherapy

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is included to inform the reader of the basic goals and techniques of bibliotherapy. Practical applications of its use are discussed through examples from the training experiences of two CITs and later use in practice. Finally, a short list of books with suggested uses is included.

BIBLIOTHERAPY IN SCHOOL COUNSELING

Reading books that contain characters with conflicts similar to client issues helps with understanding one's own issues and in coping with the difficulties (Newton, 1995). Gladding and Gladding (1991) suggest preparation steps before using bibliotherapy in a school setting. Educating teachers, media specialists, administrators, other school personnel, and parents about the purpose and technique of bibliotherapy can help facilitate its effect. The school counselor's explanation to appropriate parties should include the age appropriateness of materials and a simple description of expected behaviors. An additional benefit of education is that parents may be able to reinforce the learning through participation with other readings.

Another preparation step is consultation with media specialists, English teachers, other professionals, or parents with a literary background who might be able to recommend useful titles (see Appendix). Defining goals with student clients before using bibliotherapy is important. Goal setting helps school counselors choose appropriate material for individual or group issues. The setting and duration for the sessions are equally important decisions for school counselors. Although preparation, development, and timing are all important, Pardeck and Pardeck (1985) found the counselor/client working relationship is more significant. Results are dependent on the facilitative skills of the school counselor and the willingness of clients to participate. Positive results include increased self-esteem and improved social skills of student clients (Gladding & Gladding, 1991).

Issues Conducive to Bibliotherapy

Riordan and Wilson (1989) found that bibliotherapy is conducive to certain issues with school age clients, including career decisions, academic struggles, and fear reduction. Timmerman et al. (1989) suggested bibliotherapy is useful with students who are shy and quiet as well as with those who are motivated. Someone who is shy may connect to a story character that had a difficult time sharing their feelings but found a solution to accomplish this goal. Additionally, bibliotherapy can build better self-perceptions (Calhoun, 1987). Gibbs and Earley (1994) found children's literature is a means to supplement values education in schools. It can also help children cope with issues of stabilization in foster care or adoption (Pardeck & Pardeck, 1987). Children often hold onto fantasies of returning to their biological families and may need assistance letting go and to grieve the loss of family, if appropriate. Yauman (1991) discussed bibliotherapy as an excellent group counseling technique for issues of children of divorce because it allows children to deal with divorce in an indirect manner. Pardeck and Pardeck (1985) and Pardeck (1994) suggested its use with blended families. Other issues bibliotherapy can aid are those connected to child abuse (Pardeck, 1990a, 1990b, 1994) especially with identification of and dealing with sexual abuse (Karlin & Brueau, 1985). When used with children who have been abused, Pardeck (1994) emphasized its use as a part of a multidisciplinary treatment plan. Likewise, Kramer (1999) recommends bibliotherapy as a means of enabling children with special needs to feel accepted in inclusive environments. In summary, bibliotherapy can promote student clients' work in sorting out feelings toward many issues.

Stages within Bibliotherapy

Effective bibliotherapy is a process that includes various stages (Gladding & Gladding, 1991; Jeon, 1992; Karlin & Brueau, 1985). These stages are identification, catharsis, and insight. Identification allows readers to unconsciously recognize parts of themselves in a situation and discover similarities between the characters in the story and themselves. By relating to the story character's experiences the emotional release of catharsis takes place. When the readers' emotions and inner conflicts become conscious, insight is gained. Ideally, the realization of a personal link to the character's conflicts helps students apply the insight to their personal lives (Karlin & Brueau, 1985). Jeon (1992) also discussed universalization as an appropriate stage of this intervention. Universalization is the realization that the problems discussed are not unique and that it is possible to explore one's own problems through the efforts of others and find more effective coping methods or constructive solutions to problems. Insight can also include a compare and contrast thought process. The counselor can select a follow-up activity that will facilitate insight through the children's examination of similarities and differences between themselves and the story's characters (Gladding, 1992; Gladding & Gladding, 1991).

BENEFITS AND LIMITATIONS

Benefits

According to Gladding and Gladding (1991) the main benefit of using bibliotherapy in the school setting with student clients is the recognition of self or characteristics of self within storied situations. This recognition aids in understanding behaviors, underlying issues and causes, and provides alternate responses to situations. Other benefits include affective and cognitive change within the student, the development of a positive attitude, help with social adjustment, learning to respect the rights of others, and development of critical thinking (Pardeck, 1994). Bibliotherapy may also provide opportunities to express emotions (Gladding & Gladding; Pardeck & Pardeck, 1987), explore values (Gibbs & Earley, 1994) and learn appropriate ways to analyze situations (Pardeck). Calhoun (1987) suggested using books that carry a realistic and obtainable goal. Discussing personal issues, as perceived from the issues of the fictitious or real characters, with a counselor who is concerned and accepting is an indirect benefit (Pardeck). An added benefit is reading enjoyment (Gladding & Gladding).

Limitations

Limitations are connected to either client or counselor (Gladding & Gladding, 1991). Client resistance to participation in bibliotherapy can hinder the work considerably. This may be due to hesitancy to participate in the reading with the school counselor or before their group. Singling out a student to read in a group may feel like a put-down to the student client. Other children do not enjoy reading (Gladding & Gladding; Pardeck, 1990a). Another limitation occurs when school counselors and clients stay at a surface level rather than dealing with the underlying issues (Gladding & Gladding).

Limitations may also focus on the facilitator's limited knowledge or experience about client issues and developmental levels and with matching appropriate reading material to the situation. Counselors need a good understanding of child development (Newton, 1995) and of appropriate literature as well as the ability to match recommended books to appropriate issues (Gladding & Gladding, 1991; Newton, 1995). Harm can be done to student clients if an untrained counselor implements bibliotherapy that is based on inaccurate assumptions about the students or errors in identifying the problems (Newton). Keeping the limitations of bibliotherapy in mind, counselors can maximize its benefits and avoid harming the clients by careful planning of the sessions.

Duration, Group Size, and Follow-up Activities

As discussed previously, counselors must consider the issues of their student clients and locate appropriate literature when using bibliotherapy. In addition, counselors should organize their groups to suit the needs to their clients. The length of the sessions depends on the age and number of students participating in a group. Gladding and Gladding (1991) suggested younger children need less time and smaller groups (1/2 hour for 4-6 students) while bibliotherapy with adolescent and high school-aged students can utilize longer sessions (up to 50-minutes) with 6-8 student participants. Bibliotherapy becomes more effective when it is followed by discussion and other counseling activities such as journaling (Newton, 1995), role-play (Kramer, 1999; Newton; Pardeck & Pardeck, 1985), painting (Kramer), and creative writing (Pardeck & Pardeck). Gibbs and Earley (1994) suggested several activities to help students internalize core values discussed, a topic that is easily connected to many Georgia schools promoting character education.

A brainstorming activity was suggested by Gibbs and Earley (1994) for use in values instruction. The students list words on the board to describe someone they admire. Then, the students discuss the qualities listed and vote for the top ten traits. After reading other books, the students may want to add and remove values or qualities from their list. By maintaining a list of ten values, the students must debate their choices and decide which traits to keep and which traits to remove. The counselor should choose books that promote various core values so that the list will eventually contain a balanced set of traits.

When using journaling as a follow-up activity, Gibbs and Earley (1994) noted that students may do free response writing or may be given questions or sentence starters. Sample questions include, "If you could be like any character in the story, which one would you choose? Why?" and "Which character would you like to help and how?" (p. 15). Gibbs and Earley also stated the importance that students not be forced to share their journals and that the counselor should not respond to a student's comments with value statements or judgments. Other follow-up activities recommended by Gibbs and Earley are writing letters to characters in the book, creating puppet plays, and writing books.

Counselor Library of Appropriate Titles

Timmerman et al. (1989) suggested school counselors build a library of children's books on various topics appropriate to client issues. Other guidelines suggested finding books that hold plots children can identify with, carry dialogue that can be understood, relate events accurately, discuss realistically the origin of emotional reactions, reflect appropriate appreciation for individual differences, offer appropriate strategies that can be easily modeled, and present crises in an optimistic manner that present potential for coping or opportunities to overcome the problems (Jalongo, 1983). Riordan et al. (1996) described literature that is imaginative such as fiction, poetry, and inspirational writing or didactic literature such as self-help materials. Depending on the age and issues of the client, one or the other of the various types of literature may prove more effective. Books can be found for students reading at various levels, from remedial to above average or gifted (Pardeck, 1994).

Grant writing, requests to publishers for books out of print, scouting book fairs, and scouring neighborhood garage sales, second-hand book stores, and family attics for appropriate titles connected to student issues can provide accessible ways for new counselors or CITs to gather a personal library. It only takes creativity on the part of individuals to gather titles. The appendix offers an annotated list of suggested books and their uses by school counselors. (see

also Pardeck, 1990b, 1994; Pardeck & Pardeck, 1985, 1987; Yauman, 1991).

PERSONAL USES IN TRAINING

Bibliotherapy was found to be a useful counseling tool for two counselors-in-training in the school counseling master's program at State University of West Georgia. Bibliotherapy is a useful intervention with elementary school-age children and adolescents in the middle and high school. Generally, counselors read the book with the elementary students during the session. When used with adolescents, bibliotherapy can include reading for discussion. It is also helpful to read books to some clients in this population because by adolescence students can easily identify with fictitious or real characters and model the solutions presented (Calhoun, 1987). Sometimes reading for the sake of reading is helpful because some students missed being read to at an early age. Being read to and introduced to the world of books is good modeling on the part of school counselors.

An Example with Elementary Level Students

Following is the account of one Practicum student who used bibliotherapy with elementary school-aged children, finding it to be an effective avenue to assist clients in reaching their individual goals. This clinical experience took place at a school in which grades 3-8 were taught. Picture books were found to be an instrumental aid in working with children at all grade levels. Bibliotherapy was useful in both individual sessions and with classroom guidance. The books used by this CIT were found to be readily available in both the school and public library, which was a significant economic factor for someone trying to stretch a very small budget. Told in her own words, the 4th author discusses her experience using bibliotherapy with elementary student clients.

"For individual counseling, books were used in a variety of ways, depending on the needs of clients. I found books gave clients a concrete tool with which to interact. As my clients saw a character experience emotions and situations they were often able to identify their own feelings and behaviors. This helped jump-start the identification of goals and strategies. Many times I found I was able to draw out reluctant, nonverbal clients as they became comfortable talking about a character in the story first. I learned it is helpful to children to know they are not the only ones experiencing the feeling, behavior, or thought that was described.

I also found books to be an excellent tool to focus the students during classroom guidance activities. Many times it was difficult to keep a large class's attention, but books helped keep their attention and drew all of the students into the guidance lesson. I found that leaving the book used during the guidance lesson in the classroom for a few days was helpful. Students could then go back and reread the story or do additional activities with the teacher. As character education became a main part of the school's curriculum, books were useful agents to introduce and discuss the various character traits during guidance lessons."

An Example with Middle School and High School Level Students

Although Pardeck and Pardeck (1985) advocate bibliotherapy as most effective with children whose reading ability is average or above average, coupled with the use of age appropriate stories, it has been the experience of the third author that older children can appreciate and learn from stories usually read to younger children. Her experiences with bibliotherapy during her clinical training experiences and subsequent practice as a school counselor are outlined below.

"Working at an alternative school with at-risk students presents many unique challenges. My CIT experience was in the same alternative school in which I am now a full-time counselor. These students had so many issues, that it was difficult to decide

where to begin. It became apparent that two prevailing major issues were low self-esteem and a lack of respect for themselves and others. So began a journey of working with young people on self in hopes that other important issues could then follow.

I first used bibliotherapy almost in desperation when I brought my daughter's Berenstein Bears Forget Their Manners (Berenstein & Berenstein, 1985) book into a group one morning. Although I noticed teachers on staff raised their eyebrows at my selection of titles, I was determined to capture these students' imagination and make a point with them. It is important to remember that I work with students in grades 6-12 who range in ages from 12-20. Of course, the presentation of something is very important in its acceptance. So, in a very light-hearted way, I shared with the group that I had a special treat for them and I wanted them to sit back and listen carefully. I announced we would talk later. To my amazement, it was a success. First of all, I discovered that these young people-no matter what age-loved for someone to read to them. Perhaps this was a key piece that they had missed out on as a child. They were not at all insulted by my reading a children's book to them because the discussion that followed was relevant to their life. Our group had been working on issues relating to behavior and respect and when we used the book as a 'jumping off' point of discussion and role-playing, it was very successful. Additionally, I found bibliotherapy useful in helping students feel that they are not alone. Students can identify with characters in the books and see things from different perspectives. During my time as a CIT, a group of students was having a very difficult time in dealing with the death of a friend who had been killed in an automobile accident. While working with the group and dealing with issues of grief, progress was slow. They could not seem to let go. They carried pictures of the young man and a copy of his obituary in their notebooks. In my research, I came across a wonderful book written by Barbara Park (1995) entitled, Mick Harte Was Here. Several sessions were spent in reading the book to the group. They listened intently, sometimes laughing and sometimes crying. The discussions that resulted from this book were phenomenal and the healing process finally began.

Bibliotherapy is an integral part of my counseling. I have used it in both individual and group counseling and it has been especially effective in classroom guidance activities. Patricia Polacco's books are wonderful resources for cultural diversity (see Appendix). Jon Scieszka's (1989, 1991) The True Story of the 3 Little Pigs and Frog Prince Continued are delightful and enable students to see things from different perspectives. Respect, love of self and others, and giving are so easily introduced and discussed with books such as Shel Silverstein's The Giving Tree (1964) and Barbara Shook Hazen's (1989) The Knight Who Was Afraid of the Dark. Margaret King Mitchell's (1993) Uncle Jed's Barbershop is a wonderful book dealing with many issues such as segregation and the Great Depression, but most of all with dreams and of never giving up. From the use of bibliotherapy with this age group, I learned an important lesson. Even though I may have chosen a book with what I thought was a particular theme such as respect or tolerance, sometimes the students' perception differs. This discrepancy between views can lead to discussions and the meeting of needs in sometimes very different areas."

CONCLUSION

Bibliotherapy as a counseling intervention is useful in influencing student growth and development with a variety of issues including personal adjustment, insight into issues, and learning alternative coping skills and solutions to problems. Books can help children focus attention outside of

themselves, realize that other children have similar experiences and difficulties, and learn to share their experience with others, especially with school counselors or other appropriate helpers (Pardeck & Pardeck, 1985). Key to the process is the selection of books by the counselor and the ensuing match of books to client issues (Calhoun, 1987). Books have endless possibilities for school counselors due to their ageless appeal and easy availability.

In-service training for other teachers, administrators, and staff can enlist their support of the use of bibliotherapy. Likewise, engaging parents in the use of bibliotherapy for the reinforcement of solutions can facilitate the development of values and/or coping skills in their children. Educating school staff and parents not only reinforces what is learned in the counseling sessions, but also creates a more supportive environment for students (Gibbs & Earley, 1994).

Some facilitator limitations can be remedied (Gladding & Gladding, 1991). Researching child development issues and building lists of appropriate books to deal with the issues are advantageous. Discussions with media specialists can enlighten school counselors about appropriate books relative to client issues.

With a library filled with books covering a variety of issues for different ages and reading levels, school counselors are able to supplement their sessions with a potentially powerful technique. Students of all ages enjoy being read to by the counselor in session, and enjoy the follow-up activities. Bibliotherapy offers a way for school counselors to open students' eyes to new possibilities in a safe, supportive environment.

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APPENDIX

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Book	Description
Anderson, Deborah & Finne, Martha. (1986). Margaret's Story. Dillon Press. Ages 5-10.	Based on a true story, Margaret is sexually abused by her neighbor and is afraid to tell her parents.
Bawden, Nina. (1985). The Finding. New York: Lothrop. Ages 9-12.	The story of a boy placed in an adoptive family. Despite feeling loved by the adoptive family, the boy runs away but later returns.
Danziger, Paula (1982). The Divorce Express. Delacourt Press. Ages - Young Adult	Fourteen-year-old Phoebe adjusts to her parents' divorce.
Dragonwagon, Crescent. (1983) I Hate My Brother Harry. Harper Collins Children's Books. Ages 5-8.	A story about siblings.

Book	Description
First, Julia. (1981). I, Rebekah, Take You, the Lawrences. Watts. Ages 8-12.	A childless couple adopts a 12-year old girl.
Freyman, Saxton & Elffers, Joost. (1999). How are You Peeling? Foods with Moods. Arthur A. Levine Books. Ages 4-8.	Faces are created in fruits and vegetables to illustrate different emotions.
Golenbock, Peter. (1992). Teammates. Harcourt Brace. Ages 4-8.	This book teaches about friends and racial reconciliation through the story of Major League Baseball teammates and friends Jackie Robinson and Pee Wee Reese.
Henkes, Kevin. (1996). Lily's Purple Plastic Purse. Greenwillow. Ages 4-8.	This story teaches about having self-control. Lily is a mouse who can't stop playing with her purse in class.
Hogan, Paula S. Sometimes I Get So Mad. Raintree Children's Books. Ages 4-8.	Karen struggles with handling her anger.
Mazer, Harry. (1978). The War on Villa Street. Delacorte. Ages 11-14.	An 8-year old boy is abused by his alcoholic father.
Mills, Lauren. (1991). The Rag Coat. Little, Brown and Company. Ages 4-8.	The daughter of a coal miner wears a coat of rags to school and is teased by classmates. She forms a bond with her peers as she reveals the story of her coat.
Moser, Adolph. (1996). Don't Feed the Monster on Tuesdays!: The Children's Self Esteem Book. Landmark Editions. Ages 7-12.	A book about irrational thoughts.
Paterson, Katherine. (1978). The Great Gilly Hopkins. Thomas Y. Crowell. Ages 10-14.	An 11-year-old girl struggles with being abandoned by her mother and living in foster homes.
Polacco, Patricia. (1992). Chicken Sunday. Philomel Books. Ages Baby - Preschool.	A multicultural story about kindness.
Polacco, Patricia. (1994). Pink and Say. Philomel Books. Ages 5-9.	The story of an interracial friendship set in the Civil War.
Scieszka, Jon. (1989). The True Story of the 3 Little Pigs. Puffin Books. Ages 4-8.	A. Wolf tells his version of the tale in this book that teaches there are two sides to every story.
Scieszka, Jon. (1991). The Frog Prince Continued. Viking. Ages 4-8.	The unhappy frog prince learns to appreciate his life with the princess after exploring alternatives.

Book	Description
Simon, Norma. (1992). The Saddest Time. Albert Whitman & Co. Ages 4-8.	This book deals with grief through three stories of children experiencing the death of a loved one
Udry, Janice May. (1988). Let's Be Enemies. Harper Trophy. Ages Baby - Preschool.	Two friends have an argument in this lesson in friendship.
Wolff, Ferida. (1993). Seven Loaves of Bread. William Morrow. Ages 4-8.	A lesson in responsibility from two sisters who live on a farm.
Yashima, Taro. (1976). Crow Boy. Viking. Ages 4-8.	A book that teaches respect in the story of a shy mountain boy in Japan.
Zolotow, Charlotte. (1989). The Hating Book. Harper Trophy. Ages 4-8.	A little girl's best friend stops talking to her. This story teaches a lesson in friendship.

Girl Talk For Teen Women: A School Based Discussion Group For Girls

Oya Benn Townsley

Facilitating a Group for Teen Women

Many teen girls arrive at the schoolhouse door with personal and social issues that distract them from their studies. As early as middle school, many girls are burdened with concerns about dating relationships, sexual identity, jealousies, conflicts with other girls and much more. Further, upon one's observation of their behaviors, it is apparent that many of these young ladies lack self-respect and social graces. Also, some of these girls have developed behavior problems that need modifying. Kann and Hanna (2000) suggested that some of the misbehavior of girls may be attributed to parents and teachers overlooking early aggression in girls and deeming it less problematic than aggression in boys.

Outside of individual counseling, many schools do not offer a structured setting in which girls may express and resolve some of these concerns. Becky and Farren (1997) developed a school-based psychoeducational group model for teenage girls to help them define and avoid abusive relationships. However, school-based programs for such needs and other concerns are few or nonexistent. It was the combination of many young ladies expressing a need to discuss issues among themselves, coupled with their apparent need to improve their social deportment, that provided the impetus to develop the discussion group for girls at our school. The discussion group is called, "Girl Talk For Teen Women" (GTTW) at the middle school. Although "Girl Talk for Teen Women" is a middle school program, high school girls share the same needs and concerns that can be addressed in a similar way. The group for high school girls is called, "Sister Talk".

Implementing A Program

Participants and Scheduling Meetings

When planning to implement discussion groups for girls, school size and scheduling issues must be considered. At DeKalb Alternative School the female population is small. Therefore, the girls are divided into 2 groups, middle school (grades 7 and 8) and high school (grades 9 through 12). The discussion groups meet once per week. When the size of a group at either level grows to 15 girls, a second group is organized and meetings may be held on alternating weeks. Because there are not any study periods in our master schedule, the period during which the group meets rotates so that the girls will not miss the same class

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each week. In a larger school setting where participation of all girls is not possible, counselors can create small groups by targeting a certain age, a class or a few students who choose to participate voluntarily.

Type of Group

Another consideration when planning a discussion group for girls is to determine the type of group it will be. Some options are an Open Discussion Group, a Guided Discussion Group and a Need Centered Support Group. In the Open Discussion Group the students determine the topic for each meeting and play a key role in directing the discussion. This approach is welcomed by the participants because it allows them an opportunity to come together and discuss issues of importance to them under the supervision of an adult figure who facilitates rather than directs the discussion. The downside to this approach, however, is that the experience may become counter-productive if a topic splinters into too many fragments. In the Guided Discussion Group the facilitator provides a planned agenda and directs the discussion. This approach, which has proved to be more constructive, provides the participants with practical information that aims to enhance their personal and social development. Discussions are not fragmented; rather, they are structured, focused and seasoned with relevant activities and exercises. Finally, the Need Centered Support Group is composed of young ladies who share a common problem or concern. Metcalf (1995) refers to the common problem as the "theme" for the group. Some possible themes are sexual abuse survivors, teen mothers, and survivors of juvenile incarceration. In her Solution-Focused Brief Therapy (SFBT) model, Metcalf suggests that the facilitator's role in this type of group is to help the participants address their issues by "looking for the exceptions, doing something different, finding out what is working and celebrating success" (Metcalf, p.153).

Parental Consent

Prior to initiating any groups that involve topics of a delicate nature, the facilitator should obtain written consent from the parent or guardian of each participant. At DeKalb Alternative School we accomplish this by including a consent form in the school's registration materials (see Appendix A). The consent form provides a brief comment on the purpose and nature of the group. When we enroll a female student into our program we answer the parents' questions about the form and the GTTW program at that time.

Ground Rules/Guidelines

At the first meeting of GTTW the participants engage in an ice-breaker activity, develop a list of anticipated topics, and review a list of guidelines that serve as ground rules for the group (see Appendix B). Because some girls take the liberty to share personal information with the group, the confidentiality ground rule has been important. Much of the discord that exists between some female students stems from the spreading of gossip and rumors. Therefore, the confidentiality ground rule helps to circumvent the perpetuation of problems.

Activities

At DeKalb Alternative School the format used for GTTW is the Guided Discussion Group model, which provides a specific agenda for each meeting. The curriculum's topics and activities are tailored to create harmony between the girls, enhance their social skills and broaden their understanding

of matters of interest to maturing adolescent females. Etiquette, femininity, sexuality, venereal diseases, adolescent pregnancy, social norms and values, understanding emotions, handling jealousy, conflict management, and dating are a few of the topics covered in the discussion group. To address the topic of poise and femininity, one of the activities used is "Fragrance of Beauty" (see Appendix C). The objective of the worksheet is to help the participants define beauty and identify behaviors that are associated with proper deportment such as being courteous and respectful. Appropriate ways to express oneself without the use of profanity and offensive gestures is also discussed.

The topic of jealousy is introduced with an examination of some roots of jealousy and insecurity (see Appendix D). Following the review of precepts on the topic, the girls engage in an activity entitled "Help a Jealous Friend" (see Appendix E), in which the girls explore how they might handle situations that provoke jealousy.

An activity that has served as a good way to end a group session on female conflicts is "Harmony and Communication: A Kind Word Goes A Long Way" (see Appendix F). Because so many girls struggle with concern about acceptance and approval from their peers, they respond most favorably to the opportunity to receive an affirmation from another young lady. For example, one may comment on how much she appreciates another girl's friendly personality. Another may affirm a classmate's ability to style hair extremely well.

A very popular discussion topic and one that is sorely needed is sex and sexuality. Teenage sexual promiscuity in on the rise, resulting in unwanted pregnancies and sexually transmitted diseases. To explore the girls' opinions and attitudes about sex, a survey entitled "Survey On Teens And Sex" is completed by the girls during the first of three or four meetings devoted to the topic (see Appendix G). The girls eagerly offer their responses and ask questions that are pertinent to the subject. On one of the questions, the girls are asked to indicate what percentage of teens in their age group is sexually active. It is of concern that most of the young ladies report a percentage that is very high. Because many girls openly admit that they are sexually active, the related risks are discussed and promiscuous sexual involvement is strongly discouraged.

While on the topic of sex, the prevention of adolescent pregnancy and the difficulties associated with teen parenting is covered. An excellent resource when facilitating a discussion on this topic is the Girls Incorporated organization (formerly Girls Club of America). This agency offers a program for girls called 'Will Power/Won't Power' (Girls Incorporated, 1988) which focuses on encouraging girls (ages 12-14) to delay engaging in sexual intercourse. The curriculum in accessible through the agency (see References).

When addressing the issue of risks associated with casual pre-marital sexual activity and unwanted pregnancies, the option of abstinence is presented. A recommended video on this subject is, "First Comes Love" (see Resource List of Videos, Appendix H). The video encourages teens to consider practicing abstinence until marriage. To reinforce the abstinence message covered in this video the girls engage in role-playing during which they practice ways to say "no" to requests from boys for sex. The girls approach the activity with enthusiasm. Bringing closure to discussions on the subject of sex and boys often presents a challenge. The questions that the young ladies ask are endless.

CONCLUSION

The ideas presented here represent only an overview of what is offered through the GTTW program. Some other topics are anger management, effective communication, decision-making, and values identification. These topics help guide, cultivate and enlighten the young ladies during this stage of their development. This writer continues to seek ways to help girls strengthen their social skills and gain an understanding of how social norms, both negative and positive, influence many of the behaviors they model, attitudes and values they maintain, and choices that they make. School professionals, through programs such as GTTW, can help counteract some of the negative influences within our culture that have tainted the values and standards of many girls. As educators and counselors we must remain committed to bridging the gaps where deficits exist in the overall personal and social development of youth.

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APPENDIX A

Printed on School Stationery:

DEKALB ALTERNATIVE SCHOOL
5855 Memorial Drive
Stone Mountain, Georgia 30083-3486
(404) 292-7315

Eunice B. Meadows, *Principal*
James R. Hallford, *Superintendent*

Dear Parent,

A special program for all middle school girls called Girl Talk For Teen Women (GTTW) meets one period each week. The purpose of the GTTW is to enhance the girls' social and personal development and to provide an opportunity for the middle school girls to discuss issues of concern to them. A few of the topics covered are etiquette, conflict management, jealousy, self-esteem, and dating. While questions on the topic of sex are welcomed and openly addressed, such as questions about venerial diseases, discussions on the subject of sex do not encourage or endorse sexual activity.

Please check one:

_____ I consent to my daughter participating in GTTW.

_____ I do **not** consent to my daughter participating in GTTW

Parent's signature:_____

Date:_____

APPENDIX B

GROUND RULES

- Everyone has the right to pass on activities.

- All points of view are worthy of being discussed. No put-downs of others' values.

- No question is dumb. Questions indicate a desire for knowledge.

- No asking of personal questions.

- No talking about classmates' comments outside the classroom.

- Any complaint about the group should be discussed with the teacher.

- The teacher will respect the confidentiality ground rule as well, except when information disclosed by a member reveals that she or another student is at risk or harm. This includes, but is not limited to, news about an abuse case or a pregnancy.

Fragrances of Beauty

Directions:

a. Fill in each petal with a characteristic of beauty.

b. List them in their order of importance on the lines provided below. Begin with what you believe to be the most important characteristic.

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4 _____

5. _____

6. _____

APPENDIX D

GTTW
Jealousy Part I

INTRODUCTION:

What is jealousy? (All definitions are welcomed)

INSIGHTS ON JEALOUSY:

- Jealousy is rooted in feelings of insecurity.
- Jealousy tends to surface when there is an absence of self-love.
- Jealousy can cause an individual to become critical of others.
- Jealousy can provoke discord amongst peers.
- Jealousy can keep one blinded from her personal attributes.
- Jealousy can tarnish one's overall beauty.
- Jealousy hinders female relationships because a young lady cannot feel good about another female until she feels good about herself.

TYPES OF INSECURITIES:

A girl might be...

- Insecure about her looks
- Insecure about her abilities
- Insecure about her attractiveness to the opposite sex
- Uncertain that she is loveable

SUGGESTIONS FOR DEVELOPING
A SENSE OF INNER SECURITY

1. Focus on one's strengths
2. Love oneself with positive self-talk
3. Read poems and books that boost the self-esteem and create positive thoughts
4. Start a mission of kind acts towards others
5. Propose to master a new activity

Add your suggestions here:

6. _____

7. _____

APPENDIX E

Jealousy Part II

HELP A JEALOUS FRIEND

INSTRUCTIONS:
Complete the exercises below. When completed you will be allowed to divide into small groups to decide on a final list of advice for each situation. Your group will use one sheet of construction paper to list tips for Shanita and use a separate sheet to list tips for Rita. Use last week's lesson for ideas.

Situation A:
Shanita is jealous of her best friend, Erica, because Erica has a new boyfriend. Keep in mind that Shanita no longer has her old boyfriend and was accustomed to sharing girl chat with Erica, often. Give thought to the different aspects of Shanita's feelings of jealousy.

In the space below, write a short friendly letter of advice to Shanita. Include at least 3 tips.

Situation B:
Rita started a fight with her classmate over a boy. Rita accused the girl of trying to take away her boyfriend. Give thought to how Rita might be feeling and consider how the situation should have been handled.

In the space below, write a short friendly letter of advice to Rita. Include at least 3 tips.

Reflection/Group Comments/Personal Experiences

APPENDIX F

HARMONY AND COMMUNICATION

ACTIVITY: "A Kind Word Goes A Long Way"

DIRECTIONS: Take one copy of the class roster provided. Write one positive comment about each girl. Use the lines which appear to the right of her name. Those of you who wish to openly express your comments to your classmates will be given an opportunity to do so. At the end of the activity all comments will be collected and compiled so that each of you may receive all of the comments written about you by the group. Remember to give only positive comments about each girl. Inappropriate comments will not be distributed.

REFLECTION TIME: How does it feel to receive kind words from a classmate?

APPENDIX G

SURVEY ON TEENS AND SEX

A. Complete this section by placing a circle around one of the options provided.
My friends and I discuss sex:

never **seldom** **often** **very often**

Which of the following percentages represents the number of students in your age group who engage in sex?

10% **20** **30** **40** **50** **60** **70** **80** **90** **100**

B. Why do you think teens are choosing not to wait until marriage to have sex?

List your ideas here.

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

From section B, select the bad reasons to have sex and list them below:

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

APPENDIX H

RESOURCE LIST OF VIDEOS

The following videos may be used with both middle and high school students:

"4 Pregnant Teenagers, 4 Different Decisions" (55 min)
Sunburst Communications, Pleasantville, NY (1-800-431-1934)
This program forces the student to weigh the problems associated with the four options available for the pregnant teenager: adoption, marriage, single parenthood, abortion.

"Ultimate Choice" (30 min)
ImageMaster Productions, Atlanta, GA (404-231-3200)
This film shows first hand accounts of teen parents who are struggling to survive the challenges that teen parents face.

"Sex, Lies and the Truth" (30 min)
Focus on the Family, Colorado Springs, CO (1-800-232-6459)
This film reveals the hard truths about unwanted pregnancies, STDs and AIDS. Alternatives to the pseudo glamour of a high risk lifestyle are presented.

"First Comes Love" (26 min)
"Project Realty, Golf, IL (1-847-729-3298)
This video presents an abstinence-until-marriage message to youth using medical information, classroom talks and dramatic vignettes.

"Real People: Teens Who Choose Abstinence (23 min)
Sunburst Communications, Pleasantville, NY (1-800-431-1934)
This program presents sexual abstinence to the student as a viable alternative and desirable option even after one may have been involved sexually. Short vignettes are presented and suggestions are provided for activities and discussions.

Empowering and Transforming African American Adolescent Males: A Personal Reflection

Deryl F. Bailey

If you follow the media, I am sure you realize the challenges young African American males face. Unfortunately, much of what has been written and portrayed in the media has been negative. Most often, the only positive things highlighted are in reference to African American males who have experienced success in the entertainment or athletic worlds. I am truly proud of the accomplishments of Michael Jordan, Tiger Woods, R. Kelly, Tavis Smiley, and many others. I must point out, however, that there are many African American males who are successful in other areas that do not attract the same level of glamour or prestige. These men are working just as hard to live productive lives while combating the growing drug problem, teenage fatherhood, high dropout rates, and many other challenges confronting African American males.

Much has been said about the importance of Black male role models, and that only Black men can help young Black males (Foster, 1996; Lee & Bailey, 1997). I agree that Black males are better equipped to address certain issues and/or concerns that young Black males may have, but other non-Black men and women have a great deal to offer as well. For example, the majority of those who employ young males are not Black. The majority of the foundations, agencies, companies, and individuals that provide financial assistance for college and other post-secondary opportunities are headed or owned by non-Black men and women. It is evident that anyone who has a sincere interest in young people in general has a great deal to offer these young men. To say that only African American men can help young African American boys appears to assume that efforts made by individuals from different cultural and ethnic backgrounds are not important. However, I do believe that African American males can more effectively teach African American boys how to become strong African American men.

On July 24, 1984, after earning my Master's degree in Guidance and Counseling, I entered my first counseling job. As I entered my new career, I held the belief that I could change the world. Wrong! It took me five years to realize that was impossible. It was not until I accepted a school counseling position at a high school in western North Carolina that I realized that I could neither change nor fix the world. At the same time, I realized that I could at least make a difference and it was then that I developed a program entitled "Project:

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Gentlemen On The Move (PGOTM)." The idea for this project came from an empowerment model designed by Courtland Lee (1992) entitled "Black Manhood Training." His program placed a strong emphasis on Black/African-American history and the rites of passage. PGOTM differs from that program in that it emphasizes commitment to self, the importance of positive behaviors, realizing one's potential, serving the community, developing a strong sense of unity, celebrating African American heritage, and providing a positive group experience for members.

Project: Gentlemen on the Move is not a new concept. The idea of assisting African American males to realize their potential, self-worth, and worth to society dates back to visionary thinkers such as W.E.B. Dubois (1989). The challenges confronting young African American males, however, have intensified, and, as a result, increased attention is being given to them. More than ever before, young African American males are targets of senseless and violent deaths related to larger societal problems such as drugs, under- and unemployment, suicide, poverty, and health related problems (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1990). Although nationally African American adolescents represent only 15% of the juvenile population, they are over-represented in both public (43%) and private (34%) juvenile detention facilities (Bailey, 1999; Sickmund, Snyder, & Poe-Yamagata, 1997).

Efforts to explain the challenges facing young African American males have typically placed the burden of blame on the community, church, school, and/or the home. Few have considered that in the final analysis, some of the responsibility belongs with the young men. In my opinion, the young men must shoulder the responsibility for their actions. Although a host of other variables contribute to less than ideal school, home, and community environments, young African American males make the final decision when it comes to choosing positive over negative and healthy over unhealthy behaviors. Again, this perspective does not excuse the role that other variables play in these decisions. In fact, many of the problems young African American males face today are inherited from systems that they had no hand in constructing. When it comes to responding to these flawed systems, however, young African American males must be prepared to make appropriate decisions. Gardner (1985) suggests that when people are able to maintain high levels of hope they are then able to make appropriate decisions.

Some African American males are able to sustain hope by using the challenges before them as motivators while others see them as insurmountable obstacles and a reason to give up on their dreams and hopes for their futures (Gardner, 1985). It is for these young men that interventions must be developed and successfully implemented. Based on previous experiences, I believe that interventions must teach young African American males how to generate the drive, determination, and motivation to succeed that others have been able to utilize. In addition, interventions should teach young men how to reframe negative situations so that these very challenges become sources of motivation. Programs can assist adolescent African American males to develop skills necessary to make negative situations work for them (e.g., move towards solutions) rather than against them (e.g., respond in ways that worsen their situations). Before this can be done, however, the inappropriate coping skills that they rely on to deal with negative experiences and situations must be unlearned. For decades, young African American men have used violence, drugs, and complacency as tools for dealing with their problems and frustrations. If this trend is to change, young

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African American males must replace these self-destructive methods of coping with healthier, more effective ones.

As an African American man who has encountered many of the same challenges, I consider it my responsibility to pass along "lessons learned along the way." PGOTM is my way of facilitating the academic and social success of young African American males. The mission of PGOTM is to empower and transform adolescent African American males, thereby providing the community with a new and positive set of images of these young men. As researchers have suggested for such programs (Lee & Bailey, 1997; Mincy, 1994), PGOTM is both developmental and comprehensive in nature, and reflects an approach attributed to successful interventions for African American adolescent males.

The program is developmental in that it assesses members' social and academic level, compares this information to where they should be (based on age and academic ability level), and then focuses on providing them with the skills needed to reach their full potential. This process is referred to as the "transformation." The transformation is defined as a positive change or modification in the social and academic performance of PGOTM members, and is unique to each student. These transformations will begin to manifest shortly after joining the group for some members, and will emerge in stages over varying periods of time for others.

PGOTM is also comprehensive in that it takes a holistic approach to the empowerment and transformation of adolescent African American males through addressing many areas of their lives. The program consists of three components; referral, content, and support. Although each component serves an important role, the intermingling of the three creates a system where the effectiveness of one component is important to the effectiveness of the others. All components are critical to the overall success of the program.

PGOTM aims to be a source of empowerment for its members. Empowerment has been defined as "actions intended to help people help themselves, or to create personal power" (Myers, 1998, p. 152). With regards to PGOTM these "actions" can best be described as assisting members in developing academic and social skills necessary for success with the goal of increasing their capacity to transfer these skills to other areas of their lives.

Referral Component

The referral component includes elements such as recruitment and referral, interview, invitation, and monitoring. Teachers, counselors, administrators, parents, and active members can refer students, or students may refer themselves. Once a referral is made, the prospective member is interviewed by the program director and provided with detailed information regarding the program. If there is a match between the program goals and the young man's willingness to participate and commit himself, an invitation is extended for membership. Membership is tentative until parental consent has been obtained. Once membership is finalized, the student is expected to attend the Saturday Institutes and meetings. As a member of the program, the student's academic and social performance is carefully monitored.

Content Component

The content component is comprised of mini workshops, called Saturday Learning Institutes. They are held on Saturday mornings, and involve skill development and the integration of new information pertinent to the academic and social growth of program participants. Included in the mini workshops are sessions that focus on African, African American, and family

histories, academic excellence, social development, community service, self efficacy, appreciation and acceptance of individual differences, health related issues, and etiquette, to name a few. Immediately following the Saturday Learning Institutes are two-hour meetings. These weekly meetings are mandatory and are used to plan activities and discuss issues that may have surfaced during the previous week. Another element of the content component is the academic element, which emphasizes regular school attendance, and on-going academic progress. The social element of this component focuses on respect for self, elders, women, and culturally different individuals. Opportunities to be exposed to traditional African American culture, as well as to interact with individuals from other cultures, are considered crucial. Community service projects provide an avenue for developing leadership skills and a positive work ethic while fulfilling an identified need within the community. The *Give Me A Reason: An Academic Incentive Program* provides a variety of rewards for academic progress and excellence, such as money, tee shirts, travel, dining, and special event opportunities (Bailey, 2000). These rewards are funded through donations, grants, and fundraisers.

Support Component

The third component is the support component. Within this component, group members are involved in individual and group counseling sessions. These sessions enable group members to establish short-term and long- term academic and social goals. Other areas of support include structured study sessions, tutoring, and intense exam preparation. The final aspect of the support component is the Project: Gentlemen on the Move Summer Academy, which focuses on leadership development and self-improvement.

It is my belief that when adolescents are provided adequate direction, support, and opportunities, they are better able to overcome many of the academic and social challenges that often hinder their development. This is especially true for African American adolescent males. Over the past fifteen years, Project: Gentlemen on the Move has been well received by schools and communities. Following are excerpts from letters written by community leaders and teachers, and comments from follow-up parent and student interviews that exemplify the support Project: Gentlemen on the Move has received over the years:

...The concept of this project was a good one at the outset, and has, for the past several years, lived up to its expectations...Project: G.O.T.M. has been relentless in trying to address many problems facing the youth of our schools and community. Underachievement, low self-esteem, violence and crime, among minority males, especially Black males, are some of the issues that the organization has been unafraid to challenge...This program certainly stands out among many programs attempting to serve students in the [our] community...(AHS Varsity Basketball Coach)

The Gentlemen on the Move program is indeed a powerful force for the endangered species, the African American male. It looks at the whole individual and extracts the very best from each of its participants. The program instills pride in each young man to be the best that he can be...
(ACS Alcohol & Drug Education Coordinator).

...Mr. B. has inspired these young men to stay in school, work for better grades, and be role models for other members of their community. They strive to gain self-respect and the respect of both their peers and the

general population. He has set an example for them to follow and has led them hopefully to become major contributors to our society...(Member of the Leadership Asheville Seniors Group).

...Gentlemen on the Move, is a much needed comprehensive approach to educational and life success for African American male youth (UVA Counselor Educator).

...I know several of the students in this organization, and I can attest personally to its positive results...The organization also provides new experiences for its members. It is designed to broaden the horizons of the students and point to a better, more productive approach to life...I cannot think of a more worthy endeavor. This project is very worthy of financial support. I give it my highest recommendation...(AHS History Teacher).

...I am a self-proclaimed lazy person and I do need a swift kick in the butt every once in a while and PGOTM and Mr. B. provided that...The program just pushed me and Mr. B. pushed me to take harder classes 'cause I just kind of skated through some of the easier, lower level classes. He pushed me to take those [upper level classes] and I did well...Never limit yourself...that's one thing I learned...that's the biggest thing I learned through PGOTM is to never limit yourself. You can do anything you want to do and at the time I did not realize it...it wasn't in my realm to believe I could go to certain schools, get certain things, and do certain things and PGOTM gave me that push (Former member of PGOTM. Currently, a Teaching Fellow majoring in Elementary Education and History at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro).

...PGOTM affected me by making me a leader...I took the things that PGOTM and Mr. B. gave me and I have in turn used that to give back...Mr. B. was definitely a leader for me no matter what my problems were he was always there to help or give me advice and I think that is something we definitely lack today...(Former member of PGOTM, currently employed as a computer software analyst for the U.S. Department of Defense).

When parents were asked if they thought their sons benefited by being members of PGOTM, they had the following to say:

...during his freshman and early sophomore years, he did okay but only did enough to get by...after joining PGOTM he seemed to take his academics to another level...he started taking more honors and AP courses. I think a lot of that came because of PGOTM.

...my son benefited from PGOTM because he's a very quiet, bashful child and it helped him to be more assertive. It helped him academically too...to try harder, to push a little further, because he's the type of child who as long as he's passing he's happy...it helped him to strive for higher goals and he even tried some of the honors classes. I know he wouldn't have if it hadn't been for Project: Gentlemen on the Move.

It is my hope that this model will someday become widely used to assist adolescents of all cultural and ethnic backgrounds to realize their potential to excel both academically and socially. It has been well documented that adolescents from a variety of non-White backgrounds are underachieving and are need of assistance (Education Trust, 1996,1998; Lee, 1984; Gandara & Maxwell-Jolly, 1999). If implemented, monitored, and supported appropriately, programs such as Project:

Gentlemen on the Move can provide the necessary assistance needed by adolescents who find themselves labeled "An Endangered Species".

Recently, the Project: Gentlemen on the Move model was implemented at a high school in the Athens-Clarke County school district. In an effort to measure and document the impact of PGOTM research is being conducted and the results will be reported in the near future.

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GSCEPs: Georgia School Counselors Effective Practices

Dana Edwards , *Column Editor*

This column is dedicated to informing school counselors about useful and innovative activities, handouts, and resources designed by school counselors or school counselor educators. The first entry is a useful and fun introduction activity that can be used for classroom introductions of the school counselor during the first weeks of school. Next is a letter to prepare parents and volunteers for speaking in classes during Career Week. Third, is a listening activity that can be used in classroom guidance or in a small group for elementary and middle school students. Fourth, is information on preparation for a crisis. Lastly, there are some suggestions for school counselors to destress and rejuvenate so they can better cope with the job of being a school counselor.

Who Wants to be a Star?
Submitted by Amie Schmuckler, Simpson Elementary School, Gwinnett County and Kathryn Sax, Pope High School, Cobb County

"Who wants to be a star" follows the format of the show "Who wants to be a Millionaire" and is a fun way to introduce the school counselor to the students primarily in grades 2-5. Posters with the following questions, life line cards (ask the audience, phone a friend), a play phone, microphone (can be made out of construction paper and foil) are needed for this classroom guidance lesson

Invite one student to be the contestant. The contestant is asked to answer the questions and can use 2 lifelines. It is especially fun if the counselor has the actual theme music and applause on a cassette that can be played throughout the game.

Question 1
What does a school counselor do?
a. helps serve lunch in the cafeteria
b works with students who need someone to talk to
c. sings back up for the Back Street Boys

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Question 2
Who gets to see the counselor?
a. anyone who needs someone to talk to
b. kids who are 7 years old
c. only kids who are bad

Question 3
How can you visit the counselor?
a. blink 3 times while standing on one foot
b. yell "you who" in the hallway
c. fill out a form or tell your teacher
After the contestant answers this question, show a counseling referral slip and explain how and when to use it. Also, let students know that their teachers or parents may also suggest that the counselor speak with them.

Question 4
Where is the counselor's office?
a. In the library
b. In room ____ near_____
c. Behind the monkey bars outside

Question 5
When will we see the counselor?
a. every time the teacher needs to use the restroom
b. only on a blue moon
c. every other week

Question 6
Who knows what you and the counselor do together? (Suggest that the contestant use one of the lifelines - ask the audience entails taking a vote of the classroom and phone a friend involves asking the student to select another student to help them answer the question).
a. the whole 2nd grade
b. only the people you choose to tell
c. Brittany Spears
After the student answers this question, be sure to explain confidentiality and the possible breaches to confidentiality.

Question 7
What will I do with the counselor?
a. break dance
b. talk, play, or read
c. whistle with crackers in my mouth

Question 8
How many people visit the counselor at a time?
a. sometimes only one or sometimes a small group
b. as many as we can fit in the room
c. 34

Question 9
Who are the 2 counselors in our school?
a. Name of the principal and an administrator
b. Give the correct names
c. Names two specials teachers

Congratulate the contestant at the conclusion of the game and encourage applause throughout the game. The counselor can give a fake check for $1,000,000 from the Bank of _____ Elementary School. Then summarize the lesson by reviewing the questions. The counselor can add other questions that might be specific to that grade or school such as how to use agenda books, the school mascot, etc.

Welcome to Brookwood's Career Fair
Submitted by David Young, Brookwood Elementary School, Gwinnett County

This letter can be used to give to parents and/or volunteers who speak to classroom during career week.

Welcome to Brookwood's Fifth Grade Career Fair!

On behalf of the faculty, staff, and students of Brookwood Elementary, thank you for participating and helping us with this event! Please join us in the front lobby of the school at 11:30 a.m. tomorrow morning for pizza and sodas compliments of the Brookwood PTA. Also, feel free to stop by those tables during the breaks, as we'll have lots of snacks and drinks available. Please park in the lower parking lots tomorrow, and not in front of the school. Buses will be arriving prior to the end of the event; you would have to move your vehicle at that time. Thanks for being here!

The fifth grade students have already spent 6 classroom guidance lessons learning about the Academic Majors (Agriscience/Environmental, Arts/Humanities, Health/Medical, Business/Management/Marketing, Technical/Engineering, and Human Services. Students have been encouraged to ask you things such as: "Why did you choose this particular career? Would you choose it again? What is a typical day like? What types of things did you have to learn in college or other types of training? Have computers and technology changed your job? What other changes do you see down the road in your career field? If I am interested in your career area, what kinds of things can I do now to start learning more about it (books, web sites, volunteer work, etc.)? What do you like most about your job? Least? Do you have to travel in your job?"

Feel free to bring some kind of hand-help prop, example of your work, a tool you use in your job, etc. so you can show the students. Also, a big part of this program has been to stress to the students the importance of basic academics in the world of work. Please be sure to tell them how important it is in your job to have skills in math, reading, written expression, computers, people skills, etc. We would also like you to emphasize to the students the importance of getting good grades, studying hard, setting goals for themselves, and other topics of that nature. Thank you sharing your time and expertise with us!

The Good Listening Game

Submitted by Dana Edwards, Ph.D., Georgia State University

Teaching good listening and attending skills is an important part of any communication or study skills classroom guidance or small group counseling lesson. Often, teachers, parents, and student themselves will tell the counselor that the student is a poor listener. The Good Listening Game shows students that they can be good listeners when they choose to attend to what is being said. This activity involves assigning each student to one of four categories such as tools, states, fruits, and colors. The counselor reads a list containing 3 to 6 items belonging to each category (e.g. blue, Florida, wrench, Montana, banana, red, hammer, apple). Once the list is read, students are then asked to recall and write down only the items read aloud in their particular category. If the counselor wishes, students can then organize according to categories and check to see if there is agreement. Students are usually very successful with this activity because they really try hard to concentrate and attend to only the items in their category. The school counselor can then process the activity by asking the students what was

easy and difficult about the activity. Then he or she should ask the students what kind of distractions they have in the classroom and at home when doing their homework (e.g. someone mowing the grass, fellow student thumping pencil, younger brother/sister making noise). This activity demonstrates to students that with concentrated effort, they can tune out distractions and attend to details both at home and in the classroom. This activity is best for students in grades 4 - 6, although more difficult categories could be used with older students.

Preparation For A Crisis, Taken From The GSCA Crisis Management Resource Booklet

Crisis is unfortunate and unpredictable. Because of this, it is important for all school counselors and their schools to have a plan of action for times of crisis such as natural disaster, death of a faculty/staff member or student, violent act, or any other event that affects a group of people at the school. Following are some important things to consider when preparing for and responding to a crisis. While crisis is unpredictable, how we respond to it does not have to be.

Many school systems have developed crisis plans for their schools. In developing your school's plan, make sure you are following your county procedures. A crisis plan ensures a proactive approach and a security of knowing what to do when a crisis occurs on your campus.

Setting up a response team for your school is essential in the preparation procedures. This is the major decision making group and can include administrators, counselors, social workers, school psychologies, teachers, and parents.

The school crisis plan should outline the responsibilities that need to be completed when a crisis occurs, such as setting up tasks to provide safety and security to teachers, students, and parents and who is responsible. In addition, development of a community resource list is essential. This could include local religions leaders, police officers, fire fighters, emergency medical staff, state emergency agencies, local psychologists and counselors, and local school system personnel.

The development of a phone tree for the school staff is very important when crisis may occur after school hours or on weekends. The procedures for the phone tree need to be outlined to the staff and changed phone numbers need to be constantly updated.

The conformation of a crisis should be handled by the principal or a response team member. This confirmation may require contact with the family or families involved or law enforcement.

Things to remember:

When first hearing about the crisis incident, ask the person informing you not to repeat the information or allow the information to spread until accurate information can be obtained. The administrator needs to prepare an accurate announcement. Defining the crisis accurately is essential.

Be sensitive when talking to the families involved, especially when information is given and requested. Establish one contact person with the family in order to keep communication on-going. Request from the family information regarding arrangements, memorials, etc.

Conducting large assembly programs should be thoughtfully

considered as it is difficult to provide support to students in a large setting. A better approach could be "safe rooms" with professional staff on duty for students to go to and receive small group or individual assistance. Classroom guidance can also be a good way to share information, process thoughts and feelings, and assess if students need further assistance.

A specific person needs to be assigned to the media to ensure that correct information is given out to the public. Students and staff should be protected from this disruptive and sometimes insensitive contact.

If a student or faculty/staff member becomes deceased in the crisis, careful consideration should be given to gradually removing belongings. Many times the honoring of the deceased is handled through reminders of this person.

Flexibility in the schedule and curriculum needs to be considered when handling a crisis. Decisions regarding this should be handled on a case-by-case basis.

Glorification of a student or faculty/staff who took their life by suicide, substance abuse, etc., needs to be considered carefully. The honoring of a person is important, but the glorification of poor judgment also must be considered. Naming a scholarship or a memorial might seem to glamorize the act of suicide.

Gossip and criticism are negative responses and it is important that the faculty and staff not use either with talking with students about the crisis.

Debriefing the faculty/staff on a daily basis is very important. This procedure will help eliminate rumors and confusion.

Adults should be the only persons allowed to answer the phones during a crisis situation. These adults should be trained and comfortable with this role.

For more information regarding preparing for and responding to a crisis, school counselors are urged to read the GSCA Crisis Management Resource Booklet so they can gain further ideas and resources to utilize in a crisis situation.

Rejuvenating the Rundown School Counselor Through Aromatherapy

Submitted by Dr. Dovie Wesley Gray, Head Counselor, Stone Mountain High School, and Joanne Newby, Head Counselor, Redan High School, in DeKalb County, Georgia.

Professional school counselors tend to ignore their personal needs. School counselors often deny self in order to take care of others. At times, counselors become so wound up in their daily routines that they are unaware of their own stresses. Many times the stressors manifest themselves in physical or mental illnesses. In addition to internalizing the problems and concerns of their students, counselors must contend with enormous amounts of paperwork, crisis intervention, staff consultations, and system support services. And, when counselors arrive home, they often must handle the demands of a modern day family, which could include taking care of elderly parents, children, spouses, and other community activities.

It is critical that school counselors find ways to manage this stress and rejuvenate so they can attend to themselves and their work. Methods to

promote good health and emotional well being include aromatherapy, therapeutic massages, steam inhalation, facials, baths, and scented candles. Aromatherapy can work to relax the nervous system and give it enough stimulation to rebalance and control itself, leaving one refreshed and ready to cope with daily demands. Wax candles, impregnated with essential oils, or a few essential drops of oil added to an oil lamp can be used for a soothing effect. In addition, a few drops of essential oils can be used in a hot bath to soothe the body, as well as the spirit. Ten to fifteen drops of sandalwood, geranium, or the stimulating effects of pine and rosemary can be added to a Jacuzzi or hot bath (Metcalfe, 1989). It is a good idea to experiment with different scents to see which scents give you a desired affect. Body and facial oils can be used on a daily basis to nourish the skin. The combination of aromatherapy, exercise, healthful diet, relaxing music, and massage can work as de-stressors and help the school counselor cope with the many challenges of working in the school.

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The Tech Prep Advantage: The Other Path to College

James S. McCallar

Education is changing: the workforce is changing; the world is changing. Tomorrow's workforce requires different skills than in the past. Workers with technical skills will be required for tomorrow's workforce. The following statistics from the United States Department of Labor underscores this trend:

- In the year 2000, the average job in the southeast required 14 years of formal education.
- Only 20 percent of the occupations in the 21st century will require a four-year degree.
- By the year 2005, 80 percent of all occupations will require more than a high school diploma, but less than a four-year degree.

The one statistic that has remained constant since 1950 is in professional occupations, which represent 20 percent of the workforce. This group will require at least a four-year degree. Based on these statistics, we need to educate the majority of our youth for technical occupations. The need for Technical Preparation (Tech Prep) is more relevant than ever.

What is Tech Prep?

Tech Prep is a school reform initiative that includes challenging academics, studies relevant to the world of work, and lifelong learning that prepares students for skilled technical careers. The initiative also includes opportunities for work-based learning experiences. Tech Prep prepares students for postsecondary education, thus creating a seamless educational program through at least two years of postsecondary technical education culminating with a diploma, an associate degree, a two year apprenticeship certificate, or continuing for an additional two years to earn a bachelors degree.

Federal legislation defines Tech Prep as an articulated secondary/postsecondary technical program of study with rigorous academic preparation in math, communications, and science. Although Tech Prep is referred to in the Carl D. Perkins legislation as a program, it might be more accurately described as a curriculum process for assisting students in career preparation. Tech Prep programs of study can be structured between high school and postsecondary education to provide two options: a student completes the final two years of secondary school and first two years of postsecondary to earn an associate degree (called a 2+2 program); or a student may complete the final 2 years of secondary school, the first two years of postsecondary and two additional years in a postsecondary institution to ultimately earn a baccalaureate degree (called a 2+2+2 program).

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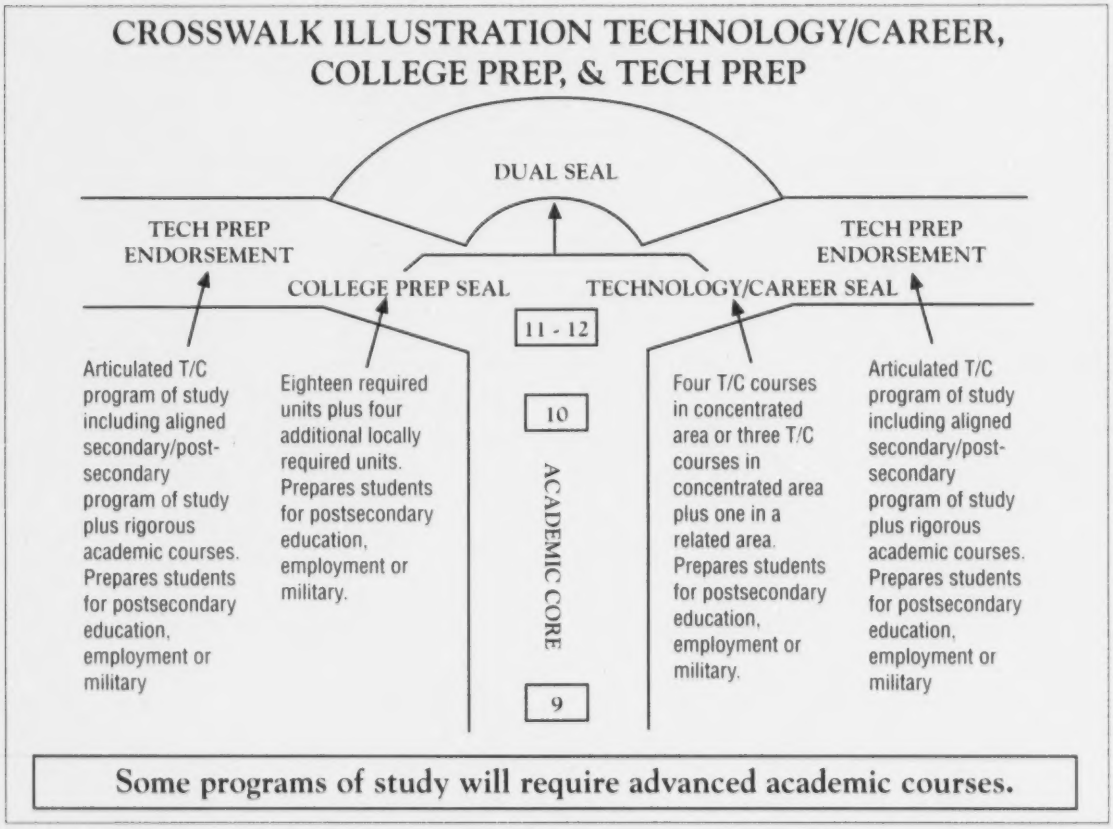
What is a Tech Prep Student?

Georgia defines Tech Prep students in the following way:

a. A secondary Tech Prep student is a student who has a Tech Prep instructional program of study derived from a signed Tech Prep articulation agreement between the secondary school/system and the postsecondary institution.

b. A postsecondary Tech Prep student is a student who has transitioned from a secondary school/system to postsecondary education with a Tech Prep instructional program of study derived from a signed Tech Prep articulation agreement between the secondary school/system and the postsecondary institution.

As the following graphic shows, a Tech Prep student in Georgia may be in a Technology/Career and/or a College Prep program:


CROSSWALK ILLUSTRATION TECHNOLOGY/CAREER, COLLEGE PREP, & TECH PREP
DUAL SEAL
TECH PREP ENDORSEMENT
TECH PREP ENDORSEMENT
COLLEGE PREP SEAL
TECHNOLOGY/CAREER SEAL
11 - 12
10
9
ACADEMIC CORE
Articulated T/C program of study including aligned secondary/post-secondary program of study plus rigorous academic courses. Prepares students for postsecondary education, employment or military
Eighteen required units plus four additional locally required units. Prepares students for postsecondary education, employment or military.
Four T/C courses in concentrated area or three T/C courses in concentrated area plus one in a related area. Prepares students for postsecondary education, employment or military.
Articulated T/C program of study including aligned secondary/post-secondary program of study plus rigorous academic courses. Prepares students for postsecondary education, employment or military
Some programs of study will require advanced academic courses.

A student who completes an associate degree at one of Georgia's technical colleges has the advantage of transferring to one of Georgia's colleges or universities that offers the Bachelor of Applied Science Degree (BAS). Colleges and/or universities in Georgia that accept the technical core from technical colleges are Georgia Southwestern, Clayton State College and University, Dalton State College, Macon State College, and Valdosta State University. A student may choose to study one of the following BAS majors: Administrative Management, Allied Health Administration, Dental Hygiene Administration, or Technology Management. Georgia is the only state that offers the BAS degree.

Accountability
The Carl D. Perkins legislation has identified core indicators that must be achieved through Tech Prep. These core indicators are:

- Student attainment of established state academic and vocational/technical standards.
- Student attainment of a high school diploma and/or a proficiency.
- A secondary school diploma or credential, or a postsecondary degree or credential.
- Placement in, retention, and completion of a postsecondary education, military service, or employment.
- Nontraditional training and employment.

All states must address all the core indicators in order to continue receiving federal funding.

Articulation/Alignment of Programs/ Courses and Advanced Credit
One of the major initiatives within the Tech Prep process is the articulation and alignment of curricula. In Georgia, a student who earns a numeric grade of 85 may receive advanced credit toward a diploma or associate degree program at a postsecondary technical college in his or her chosen career field upon validation of articulated courses completed. Technical colleges require validation of credit in the following way:

- Holding the credit in escrow until the student enrolls at a technical college and successfully completes one quarter of study;
- Holding the credit in escrow until the student enrolls at a technical college and successfully completes a designated course; or
- Administering the final examination/exemption examination for the course to be articulated.

Georgia Corsortia
In order to assist with the implementation of Tech Prep at the local level, 37 consortia have been developed in Georgia around the 33 technical colleges and four colleges with technical divisions. Each consortium has a Tech Prep coordinator. These coordinators are available to assist secondary and postsecondary personnel in the implementation of the Tech Prep process and to provide professional development activities for counselors, teachers/instructors, and administrative personnel.

Technology/Career Curriculum Update
The Technology/Career Education Division of the Georgia Department of Education is in the process of updating approximately 20 percent of its curriculum each year. When this revision process is complete, the curriculum will be competency based, aligned, and articulated with the curricula at all technical colleges and colleges with technical divisions in the state. These revisions will create additional seamless learning opportunities for students.

Benefits of Tech Prep
Statistics indicate that 87 percent of the occupations that offer life-sustaining job skills will require postsecondary education; thus, students who complete a Tech Prep curriculum will have an advantage in the job market. Tech Prep students will have the technical skills needed to compete in a global economy; they will also understand and possess skills in teamwork, problem solving, computer literacy, critical thinking, and interpersonal relations. Other benefits that students will gain from the implementation of Tech Prep include:

- Career guidance and advisement.
- Preparation for postsecondary technical education and high-wage, high-skill employment.
- Seamless education.

- Academic and vocational integration of curriculum relevant to the world of work.
- Opportunities for advanced credit at the postsecondary level.

CONCLUSION

Tech Prep can truly be the "other path to college." It is a process that can lead education to new heights because it helps answer that common question the students pose: "Why do I have to learn this?" It is our responsibility as educators at both the secondary and the postsecondary levels to encourage students to be the best they can be. Tech Prep offers a very viable option of achieving this goal. There has never been a better time than the present to encourage students to become involved in Tech Prep.

For additional information concerning Tech Prep in Georgia, contact Mr. J. Stanley McCallar at 404-657-2531 or by e-mail at smccalla@doe.k12.ga.us.

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The Profile of a School Shooter and Prevention Strategies

Kan V. Chandras

In the two years since the Columbine school shootings, American schools have been plagued by new attacks and threats. Secret plans for violence were quashed as students took threats more seriously. These incidences and the resulting unrest in our schools, both public and private, have been reported in the mass media (Anonymous, 1999; Cannon, 1999; Cloud, 1999; Gergen, 1998, Heim, 1998; Noonan, 1999, Petzal, 1998; Rogers, Haederle, Leonard, & Dodd, 1998; "Teen Killer," 1998; Time, 2001; Witkin, Tharp, Schrof, Toch, & Scattarella, 1998) and highlight the growing tendency of American students to engage in interpersonal violence. Violence is a problem not only in urban and suburban schools but also in rural schools, with more adolescents and children being both perpetrators and victims (Chandras, 1999; Hall, 1994; Litke, 1996).

There are many interpretations and explanations about student violence (Kimweli & Anderman, 1997; The Macon Telegraph, 2001). According to research, factors such as family violence, violence in the community, and violence portrayed in the media incite students to commit violent acts (Cass, 1998; Maura, 1998; Rather, 1999; Wood, 1998). Easy access to guns greatly adds to the number of violent acts committed by students. Generally, three types of violence that adolescents commit are physical assaults, murders, and sexual assaults (Petzal, 1998).

Generally, the perpetrators have been young, typically disgruntled, white males (there was one incidence of a female student engaging in violent behavior in Pennsylvania, March 7, 2001). Cloud (1999), Time (2001) and Newsweek (King & Murr, 1998) listed a chronology of school-related shootings in recent years:

1. February 2, 1996: Barry Loukaitis, 14, killed a teacher and two fellow students in Moses Lake, Washington.
2. February 19, 1997: Evan Ramsey, 16, killed his school principal and a fellow student and wounded two in Bethel, Alaska.
3. October 1, 1997: In Pearl, Mississippi, Luke Waldheim, 16, killed his mother, his ex-girlfriend and another student.
4. December 1, 1997: In West Paducah, Kentucky, police say Michael Carnal, 14, shot at a group of students, killing three.
5. March 24, 1998: In Jonesboro, Arkansas, Mitchell Johnson, 13, and Andrew Golden, 11, killed five. On August 11, 1998, they were convicted of murder and sentenced to serve in a detention center until 18 or possibly 21 years of age (Rather, 1998).

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6. April 24, 1998: Andrew Wurst, 14, opened fire at a school dance in Edinburgh, Pennsylvania, killing a teacher.
7. May 19, 1998: In Fayetteville, Tennessee, Jacob Davis, 18, killed a classmate three days before graduation.
8. May 21, 1998: In Springfield, Oregon, Kipland Kinkel, 15-year-old freshman, opened gunfire in the cafeteria with a rifle. He killed two students and wounded 22 other students. The shootings ended only when another student tackled Kinkel as he attempted to reload (King & Muir, 1998; Rogers et al. 1998).
9. April 20, 1999: In Littleton, Colorado, Eric Harris, 18, and Dylan Klebold, 17, opened gunfire in Columbine High School killing one teacher, 12 students and wounding 23 other students. They were teased by jocks and were labeled the "Trench Coat Mafia." Both committed suicide.
10. May 20, 1999: Thomas J. Solomon, 15, opened gunfire in Heritage High School, Conyers, Georgia, wounding six students. He was taking antidepressant drugs and broke up with his girl friend.
11. November 19, 1999, Deming, New Mexico: Victor Cordova Jr., 12, fired one shot into the lobby of Deming Middle School and hit Araceli Tena, 13, in the back of the head. She died the next day.
12. December 6, 1999, Fort Gibson, Oklahoma: Seventh-grader, Seth Trickey was a religious, straight-A student. He came to school, stood under a tree, pulled out his father's 9-mm semiautomatic handgun and fired at least 15 rounds into a group of classmates. Four were wounded.
13. February 29, 2000, Mount Morris Township, Michigan: A six-year-old boy, whose identity has not been released, left the crack house where he lived and went to school at Theo J. Buell Elementary. He called out to fellow first-grader Kayla Rolland, "I don't like you!" "So?" she said. The boy swung around and shot her with the loaded .32 semiautomatic handgun he had taken from home. Kayla died soon afterward.
14. May 18, 2000, Millbrae, California: A 17-year-old senior at Mills High School, whose identity has not been released, was arrested after another student reported being threatened with a gun. They found an arsenal of 15 guns, rifles, knives and ammunition at the boy's home, all apparently belonging to his father. In the eight months before his arrest, the boy had allegedly threatened seven other friends with guns and bragged he was going to "do a Columbine" at school. The victims said they were too scared to report the threats.
15. May 26, 2000, Lake Worth, Florida: Nathaniel Brazill, 13, was sent home for throwing water balloons. Police said that he returned with a .25-cal. semiautomatic handgun, went into an English class and killed teacher Barry Grunow, 35.
16. February 11, 2001, Palm Harbor, Florida: Scott McClain, a 14-year-old eighth-grader, wrote a detailed e-mail to at least one friend describing his plans to make a bomb and possibly target a specific teacher at Palm Harbor Middle School. The friend's mother alerted Sheriff's deputies, who said they found a partly assembled bomb in McClain's bedroom that would have had a "kill radius" of 15 feet.
17. February 14, 2001, Elmira, New York: Jeremy Getman, an 18-year-old senior, passed a disturbing note to a friend, who alerted authorities. A police officer found Getman in Southside High School's cafeteria, reportedly with a .22-cal. Ruger semiautomatic and a duffel bag containing 18 bombs and a sawed-off shotgun. An additional eight bombs were found in his home.
18. March 5, 2001, Santee, California: Charles Andrew Williams, 15, opened fire from a bathroom at Santana High, killing

two students and wounding 13 others.

19. March 7, 2001, Williamsport, Pennsylvania: Elizabeth Catherine Bush, 14, was threatened and teased mercilessly at her old school in Jersey Shore and transferred the previous spring to Bishop Neumann, a small Roman Catholic school. There she took her father's revolver into the cafeteria and shot Kimberly Marchese in the shoulder. Bush was reportedly still being teased and was depressed.
20. March 7, 2001, Twenty-nine Palms, California: Cori Aragon was one of 16 students at Monument High School in the Mojave Desert to discover that her name was on the hit list of two 17-year-old boys arrested on suspicion of conspiracy to commit murder and civil rights violations. Tipped off by a female student who overheard the boy's plans, police said they found a rifle in one home, the hit list in the other. This was the most serious case to follow the Santee shootings. However, fourteen other California children were either arrested or under observation for making threats.
21. March 23, 2001, El Cajon, California: An 18-year-old student, Jason Hoffman, opened gunfire at Granite Hills High School, wounding four others before he was shot by a campus police officer. In all, 10 people were injured in the afternoon shootout. The attacker targeted Vice Principal Dan Barnes, who was shot at but escaped unhurt by diving into a doorway.

Around the United States, dozens more copycat threats were reported in the media. The above tragedies are only the latest in an appalling spate of adolescent violence in recent years. Surprisingly, these adolescent boys came from middle and working-class families (Chandras, 1999, 2001; Rogers et al., 1998), shattering the myth that violent students come from desperate, impoverished families. These tragedies prompt inescapable questions: What is the cause of this disturbing trend? What is happening in American families and the larger society to cause adolescents to resort to violence? What are the parents and school personnel doing or not doing, to add their schools to the growing list of communities where adolescent anger turned schools into battlegrounds? It is difficult to find specific answers to these questions.

After studying the characteristics and backgrounds of these adolescents, the following profile was constructed and may represent the characteristics of school attackers:

1. Depression;
2. Obsession with violent acts;
3. Obsession with guns and other weapons;
4. Drug use;
5. Bullied and demeaned by other students;
6. Family pathology (violent home life, parental neglect, insecurity, etc.);
7. Lack positive relationships and communication in school and family;
8. Lonely and feel rejected by others;
9. Angry towards someone or something;
10. May show delusion of grandeur;
11. Male Caucasian;

Some of these characteristics may fit with any of the school attackers. School personnel should pay particular attention to these indicators and take necessary action before violence happens. School counselors, teachers and others must be proactive rather than reactive.

PREVENTION STRATEGIES

There is a dearth of understanding of adolescents by parents, teachers, counselors, and other helping professionals. Two key elements that are necessary to combat school violence are **communication** and **a positive trusting relationship** with adolescents.

Schools may use **outreach, advocacy** and **consultation** services in

school violence prevention. In outreach, counselors seek out those who fit the profile and assist them to resolve their problems before violence occurs (e.g., staff monitoring and guards, parents as monitors and teachers' aides, teacher crisis meetings, teacher team meetings, classes for parents, etc.). Outreach also utilizes school and community professionals of various backgrounds for help with at-risk populations. In advocacy, the counselor acts as an emissary for the student and asks the assistance of community leaders for providing necessary funds or other assistance for school projects to curb violence. As an advocate, the counselor works with teachers, administrators, school board members, community leaders, students and others to manage programs directed at curbing school violence (Smaby & Daugherty, 1995). The most common role that counselors as consultants take on is that of expert or technical advisor. Consultants provide technical assistance to teachers, parents, administrators, school-community teams and other counselors to identify and remedy problems associated with combating school violence. For example, the consultant might recommend a training program in anger management for the at-risk-students at a secondary school. The consultant may assist the school-community team (consultees) to examine school violence from the perspective of students-at-risk and parents.

Another strategy that could be utilized in school is **crisis management**. It involves strategies of close surveillance of students in schools. The strategies may include installing metal detectors, communicating trouble spots on campus, telephone "hot lines" to report crisis situations, hiring guards to supervise hallways, and strictly enforcing laws for criminal acts on campus. Crisis management solutions have preventive effects (Wolfe, 1995).

Families, churches, courts and other community agencies have successfully utilized **mediation**. Schools are encouraged to use mediation on their campuses between students and school personnel. School personnel educate students to resolve conflicts and disputes through mediation. Mediation is a process of resolving conflicts through an objective third party (mediator) whose job is to assist the parties to solve their own disputes amicably. There are many examples of mediation programs (Carlson & Lewis, 1993; Elias, 1998; Sorenson & Bowie, 1994; Zimmer, 1993).

For difficult conflicts, it is useful to turn to third parties such as peer mediators. Peer mediation programs are a first-level intervention because they are typically what schools are most eager for and tend to be the easiest and least expensive program to implement. Their implementation is often a response to an increase in student disciplinary problems, incidents of violence, or the threat of violence in schools. Conflict resolution strategies are used to defuse potentially violent situations and to persuade those involved to use nonviolent means to resolve their differences. Typically, students, as well as teachers, are selected to be mediators and are given between 10 to 60 hours of training and follow-up supervision. The mediation centers receive case referrals from teachers and other school personnel and also from students. Members of the conflict resolution team use their skills and knowledge to help maintain order in the school by counseling their peers, intervening in disputes among students, helping students talk through their problems, and training students to use conflict resolution strategies (Chandras, 2001; Crawford & Bodine, 1997).

CONCLUSION

In light of the increasing school violence, counselors, teachers and other school personnel should be ready and able to prevent crises or cope with them when they occur in schools. A trusting relationship between counselors and students will help

curb school violence. It is important to empower students to discover alternative ways of perceiving problems in order to handle them constructively and amicably. Schools should develop nonviolent environments in which students and school personnel can settle differences through discussion, mediation, and compromise. Of course, they need the cooperation and assistance from families and community leaders.

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Preventing Violence in Schools: Nurture More or Crack-Down?

A. Beth Peeples

April 20, 1999 is a day that will never leave the minds or hearts of educators in the United States. On this day in Littleton, Colorado, two students, Dylan Klebold and Eric Harris, changed what once was considered a safe learning environment into an arena for vengeance and death. Since the shootings at Columbine High School, numerous other school shootings and threats of violence have occurred across the country. These cries for help have forced educators to study and question the issue of violence in schools. Although this issue is not a new one, the horrifying events that took place at Columbine elevated the existence of violence in school to a new and deadly extreme.

Deadly youth violence is no longer thought of as isolated reactions of a bad temper; it is now recognized as a developmental issue affected by a combination of situational factors, personality characteristics, social influences, and biology (Hazler & Carney, 2000). Hazler and Carney state that the origins of school violence are more than a single bad day at school. Instead, it is a build up of traumatizing factors over time, which provide observable warning signs, and can result in deadly consequences. The Center for the Prevention of School Violence defines school violence as "any behavior that violates a school's educational mission or climate of respect or jeopardizes the intent of the school to be free of aggression against persons or property, drugs, weapons, disruptions, and disorder" (as quoted in Riley & McDaniel, 2000, p. 120-121). The majority of students who commit acts of school violence like Harris and Klebold's attack on Columbine have themselves been victims of low-level violence at school. Over time, their anger, frustration, and hopelessness may build to the point that they choose to bring a weapon to school for defense or revenge (Hazler & Carney). If schools are going to be a safe place to learn, these students must be identified and helped before their anger and frustration reach the point of extreme violent acts.

The question of how to provide the safest environment which is still conducive to learning has been answered with many and varied solutions. Being proactive instead of reactive is the goal of those persons who want to improve school safety; however, the correct way to prevent violence in our schools is still under debate. Schmitt (1999b) defines prevention of school violence as systematically identifying students at risk. He believes that we have not taken seriously indicators for potential violence because we have preconceived notions of who is at risk (Schmitt). After all, sometimes it is the high-achieving students who are the most at risk.

Arising from the chaos and fear of what to do about school violence have been two separate camps of prevention: "nurture

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more" and "crack down" (Cloud, 1999b). The purpose of this article is to discuss both camps to gain a clearer understanding of the goals, motivation, and reasoning behind each viewpoint.

Nurture More

In the weeks following the Columbine massacre, politicians began to question the quality of the school environment. President Clinton and other lawmakers renewed cries to increase the number of school counselors in America's schools (Guerra & Schmitt, 1999). The consensus seemed to be that there must have been early warning signs at Columbine. The presence of more counselors in the school could help to identify those students who show the warning signs of the potential for violent behavior (Guerra & Schmitt). The goal is to prevent high-level violent behavior by addressing lower levels of violence.

School counselors serve as a haven of safety to students. They are child advocates who can help ensure that students' needs are being addressed and keep students from getting lost in the shuffle of deadlines, bell schedules, and test-oriented instruction. Counselors are a vital resource for prevention, intervention, and response to violence (Riley & McDaniel, 2000). However, because of their caseload, counselors are not able to fulfill their potential in this capacity. In all states, the ideal counselor-to-student ratio is 1:250 (Guerra & Schmitt, 1999). Unfortunately, ideal and real rarely meet. According to Guerra and Schmitt, in Colorado, where Columbine High School is located, each counselor's caseload averaged 645 students. Though a primary problem, high student-to-counselor ratios are not the only problem facing students who want to see their counselor for a mental or emotional concern. School counselors are also responsible for providing student services and completing administrative duties such as testing (Bradley, 1999). Each of these additional duties distracts counselors from their primary responsibility - counseling students. Obviously, the need for counselors in schools is undeniable and ratios like that of Colorado schools make one wonder if the presence of more nurturing adults at Columbine could have prevented the suicidal massacre.

In addition to improving the capability to monitor the violence potential in students, increasing the number of counselors in schools also increases the number of programs the guidance department can offer to its students. Programs such as peer mediation, peer counseling, and character education allow students to feel connected to other students in their school as well as to the adults who are leading the groups (Guerra & Schmitt, 1999). These programs also teach students conflict mediation and communication skills such as listening and empathy. These life skills have the potential to deter violence by stressing the importance of communication when in conflict rather than unhealthy expressions of anger.

According to William Glasser (2000), the only way to prevent undesirable behavior in a school is to build a fulfilling relationship with the most unhappy students and with the students who can help the counselor find those who are unhappy. Violence prevention programs, such as peer mediation, have received a great deal of publicity as one solution to preventing violence (Guerra, 1999). As a result of their training and position, peer mediators are in tune with what is going on in the school. They respond to students who need help and report to the counselors and administrators any serious conflicts that arise in the school (Guerra). Extending the eyes and ears of the guidance department in a school through an avenue such as peer mediation could help a school's violence identification capacity.

Evaluation of peer mediation programs has established that students not only know when violence threatens their

school, but also that they need to tell an adult who will listen (Schmitt, 1999a). Offering a violence prevention hotline allows students, who may not have an established and trusting relationship with an adult at their school, to report information anonymously to an adult who will take their concerns seriously (Schmitt). It is important that students seek an adult's help if they believe that a friend or a fellow student is planning to harm others (Guerra, 1999).

Sandhu (2000) suggests that school counselors develop "sensitivities" to prevent school violence. The school counselor can create sensitivities about alienated students through collaboration with teachers. It is important that teachers learn to recognize the signs of alienated students as well as how to best help and encourage them in the classroom. Because teachers see their students on a daily basis, they are the first line of defense for identification. Teachers can refer identified students to the school counselor for support (Sandhu).

Once a student has been referred, the counselor is faced with the task of developing a therapeutic relationship with the alienated student. Two major issues that the counselor can help the student with are catharsis and anger management (Sandhu, 2000). The counselor can help students identify the source of their pain and help them to alleviate it. To prevent vengeful acts on the part of alienated students, it is important that the students and counselor address any anger management issues such as impulse control (Sandhu). By working with alienated students to increase their resiliency or self-control, the school counselor can empower students to deal with their anger and frustration in healthy, as opposed to violent, ways.

By creating a more nurturing environment in our schools, counselors can help reduce the occurrence of violence. Addressing the developmental needs of their students will allow school counselors to create more opportunities for students to connect not only with a caring adult but also with their school. Edwards and Mullis (2001) suggest developing this connection by allowing students the time to get to know each other as well as the school staff. Averting the possibility for alienation before it has a chance to begin has the potential to make schools a safer place for all students.

Crack Down

According to the American School Counselor Association (2001), almost half of all students say that they know another student who is capable of murder, and one out of five teens knows someone who brings a gun to school. Because statistics like these demonstrate that more youth violence occurs on school grounds as opposed to on the way to school, some school officials have chosen to take the "crack down" approach to prevent violence in their school (Cloud, 1999b). Cracking down to prevent episodes of school violence is a popular reactive prevention technique in schools across the country. Evidence of cracking down include the use of resource officers, metal detectors, mesh book bags, student identification badges, surveillance cameras, locker checks, and school uniforms; strict guidelines regarding students' freedom during the school day; and zero-tolerance policies for bullying, harassment, and weapons (Cloud, 1999a; Time.com, 1999).

The motivation behind cracking down is to make schools safer by regaining control of the campus. The presence of resource officers and metal detectors is intended to provide a sense of security to students, parents, and school officials (Time.com, 1999). These interventions demonstrate that the school is taking immediate action to protect its students and faculty from violence. In addition, requiring students to carry mesh bookbags allows the administration to keep an eye on what students are bringing to school in case they were able to avoid the metal detectors.

As noted earlier, students who choose to bring violence to their school have been victims of alienation (Kohn, 1999; Capps & Maxwell, 1999). They are not only forced to compete academically, but also socially, with other students. At the heart of social competition is popularity and cliques. Unfortunately, one of the determinants of social status in school is material possessions such as clothing. Although clothing is a form of personal expression, the family's financial resources limit a student's style. To decrease alienation, the requirement of wearing school uniforms has sometimes been used to level the playing field of socioeconomic status among students.

Keeping a closer eye on the students is another strategy to curtail violence. Students in some schools are required to wear a computer generated identification card at all times to show that they are a student at that school (Tuchman, 1999). In large schools, where it is difficult to become familiar with all the students, identification badges allow the faculty to identify and monitor the activity of students with the assurance that they belong in the building in the first place. Through the use of surveillance cameras, school administrators are able to monitor the activity in stairwells and halls that previously went unnoticed because it was impossible to arrange the personnel needed to complete such a feat.

According to Monroe and Murphy (2001), students have virtually no first or fourth amendment rights which guarantee basic civil liberties and prevent undue searches. As a result, school administrators are able to search lockers and restrict students from coming and going at will. While some might consider such actions unconstitutional, decisions made by the U.S. Supreme Court have granted rights such as these and the right to test students for drugs directly to school administrators (Monroe & Murphy, 2001).

In the early 1990's, schools began adopting one-strike-and-you're-out policies against weapons and drugs in the school (Cloud, 1999a). According to the 1996-1997 Report on Violence and Discipline in U.S. Public Schools, three-quarters or more of all schools report having a zero tolerance policy (National Center for Educational Statistics [NCES], 1998). This policy mandates predetermined consequence/s or punishments for specific offenses (NCES, 1998). In essence, a zero tolerance policy erases any gray area for student offenses and establishes a black and white criterion for punishment (Cloud, 1999a). While this policy appears anecdotal in theory, the gray area that does exist is so vast that following a zero tolerance policy leaves some students and parents questioning its fairness. After all, a policy that is all encompassing does not allow for distinctions between bringing a real gun to school and using your fingers to make a gun as a joke (Time.com, 1999). Cloud (1999a) refers to this resistance to distinguish between what a student does versus what a student merely says or writes as "subzero tolerance" and warns against the ramifications of taking zero tolerance to such an absolute level.

Additional measures that are being taken to strengthen security in schools include controlling access to school grounds and requiring visitors to sign in. Both of these tactics can be considered actions on the part of the administration to increase their awareness and control over the school grounds. In the 1996-1997 school year, 96% of school principals reported that visitors were required to sign in when entering their campus (NCES, 1998). Although controlled access to school grounds varied among schools during that same academic year, it was found to be used more in schools with the highest percentages of minority students and students in poverty (NCES, 1998). Regardless of the statistics, visitor sign in and access control are both important ways to secure a campus.

So, What's the Solution?

In a country plagued by what Attorney General John Ashcroft considers to be an "ethic of violence" among America's youth, what is the solution to preventing violence in our schools and ensuring that students are safe and able to learn (CNN.com, 2001)? The answer today remains the same as the conclusion supported by Janet Reno's 1998 panel of experts; there are no quick solutions: "no cookie-cutter federal program likely to solve what appear to be localized incidents" (Thomas, 1998, para. 3). Although most schools have chosen to either nurture more or crack down, there are advantages and disadvantages to both approaches. Most importantly, no matter which route a school or system chooses, they both cost money. The cost of hiring over 100,000 new counselors to meet the desired 250:1 student-to-counselor ratio by the year 2007 is an estimated $3.7 billion (Bradley, 1999). In addition, the increase of personnel required to place resource officers in schools, and the purchase of equipment such as metal detectors and video surveillance equipment is most likely not fully covered in the current budget of most school systems. Either way, money is a major obstacle in producing change.

Although there is literature supporting both approaches to making schools safer, there seems to be a stigma surrounding school administrators choosing to solely crack down. Critics of cracking down complain that these measures erase whatever fragile trust exists in schools between students and administrators (Time.com, 1999). Because the children involved with the shootings in the past years have suffered from alienation, it seems that addressing the underlying causes of violence before they surface would be most effective. In the end, however, school officials and parents want to see actions taken which produce immediate results and cracking down provides such results.

Real prevention, nurturing more, is harder than cracking down and is a process that must begin in elementary school and follow the students through high school graduation. The 1996-1997 Report on Violence and Discipline Problems in U.S. Schools (NCES, 1998) found that 78% of public school principals reported having established some type of violence prevention or reduction program in their schools. However, most of these programs took place on only one day and only 50% of the principals reported that all of the students in the school participated (NCES, 1998). In addition, only 26% of high schools, the level at which the most violence occurs, reported that, if they had a prevention program in place, all or almost all of their staff participated in it (NCES, 1998). This is, of course, neither the most productive nor the most desirable approach to implementing and managing a violence prevention program. The support and participation of all students and staff is needed if the program is to be successful, and the program must be on going.

Although both the nurture more and crack down approaches have disadvantages, they also have advantages. Nurturing more focuses on guiding the student throughout their primary and secondary education to become healthy functioning and well-adjusted adults, while cracking down allows administrators to immediately regain some of the control lost in the past. Perhaps the best solution, which would be satisfying to both parties, is to combine aspects of both approaches in order to achieve an environment that is nurturing, safe, and free from the acceptance of victimization.

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Identifying and Assisting At-Risk Students in Schools

Kan V. Chandras

Although the old saying "An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure" would seem to be appropriate to the counseling profession, the fact is that until recently, counselors, teachers, school administrators, and community leaders have paid little more than "lip service" to identifying and assisting the at-risk students in our schools. According to Conrath (1988), "principals and teachers have known at-risk youth for a long time. They have recently been discovered by policy makers and budget sculptors" (p. 36).

It is difficult to define the term "at-risk" youth, because of the diversity of concepts and issues that surround the term. However, a review of definitions in the literature indicates that the term is generally used for youth that are at the risk of dropping out of the educational system (Gordon, 1992; Kagan, 1988; Minga, 1988; Obiakor, 1992). School dropout is a highly visible sign of a society that has failed to prepare its youth for successful transition into adulthood. It is clear that the problem does not affect all groups equally. Poor and minority students tend to experience the highest dropout rates, and boys show higher rates than girls (Kushman & Kinney, 1989).

At present, teachers, administrators, community leaders, and parents are trying to find ways to prevent the development of dropout behaviors, and also develop effective programs to assist the growing number of young people who are at risk due to their involvement in these destructive behaviors. Why are young people at risk? What factors place them at risk? Should we take a preventive approach to attempt to stop these problem behaviors from developing? Should we continue to deal from a crisis management perspective with the problem behaviors of youth? The answer to the latter two questions is "yes." Because increasing numbers of at risk students are entering our educational system, most school systems are not equipped to address this problem from a purely crisis management perspective. Therefore, schools should provide prevention programs that will identify young people with the highest potential for developing at-risk behavior in order to stop these behaviors from developing. Educators should also identify environmental characteristics that enhance the resiliency of the student. It is important to intervene at the points of crisis and at the

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same time set into motion prevention programs that will eventually reduce the need for crisis intervention (Capuzzi & Gross, 2000).

FACTORS RELATED TO DROPPING OUT OF SCHOOL

Data from the U.S. Department of Education (Ekstrom, Goertz, Pollack, & Rock, 1986) indicate that major determinants of dropping out of school included behavior problems and poor grades. Some of the other risk factors were tardiness, low achievement in math, low scores in reading and failing one or more grades (Capuzzi & Gross, 2000; Ruby & Law, 1982; Stewart, 1992). Other factors included family circumstances with few educational supports and parents uninvolved in the ongoing process of their child's education. Also, school dropouts tended to have close friends whose attitudes and behaviors indicated alienation from school. Lloyd (1978) found a combination of four factors that discriminated dropouts from graduates: (1) achievement scores, (2) global ability (I.Q. Test), (3) socioeconomic status and family background characteristics, and (4) non-promotion.

Two studies (Wehlage & Rutter, 1986; Fine, 1986) focused on factors within the school environment that increased the dropout potential for at-risk students. The findings indicated two sets of factors that contributed to dropping out. The first set of factors included low socioeconomic status (SES), low student expectations, and low academic performance. A second set of factors included negative school experiences, alienation, and loss of commitment to the goals of education.

In addition, schools' structured characteristics, such as teaching styles based more on control than discussion, valuing authority more than autonomy, and fostering competition more than collaboration, may also have led to dropping out of school (Capuzzi & Gross, 2000; Fine, 1986). Other school structural characteristics also may contribute to dropout rates. Fine (1986) described a school that had a disproportionate share of low-achieving students and had insufficient resources, resulting in overcrowded classrooms. It was also found that teachers and administrators in the Black and Hispanic schools were predominantly White, leading to poor communication and a lack of understanding between teachers and students (Capuzzi & Gross, 2000). At-risk students felt disempowered, i.e., felt that no one listened to them and that school policy did not reflect what was really important for students. Students felt that they had little personal control over what was happening to them (Ekstrom et al., 1986). It is interesting to note that the level of self-esteem among dropouts improved after they left school.

From the students' perspective, the personal reasons for dropping out of school included family problems, pregnancy, and academic problems (Paulu, 1987). Other factors included absence of individual help and understanding, no support and help from teachers, crowded classes, and inconsistent discipline (Barber & McClellan, 1987).

Social, cultural, and ethnic background factors are the major demographic correlates of a school dropout. American schools are not always responsive to the needs of different ethnic, cultural and religious

groups (Chandras, 1995). Underlying factors such as language skills, family circumstances, and cultural differences seem to indicate that some groups (African Americans, Spanish-Americans, Asian Americans and other minority ethnic groups) drop out more than others (Grossnickle, 1986; Smey-Richman, 1991).

SOME STRATEGIES TO COMBAT AND PREVENT STUDENT DROPOUTS

School counselors, teachers and other interested persons should be sensitive to the variables that are controllable and alterable through educational and counseling strategies (Catterall, 1987). Some of these variables are poor academic performance (low grades), disciplinary problems, affective characteristics, and personal circumstances (Kushman & Kinney, 1989). Early intervention and prevention programs by counselors, teachers and school personnel could minimize dropout rates. Prevention programs should focus on keeping certain behaviors from developing. Effective prevention programs need the assistance not only of the school personnel (teachers, counselors, administrators) but also of parents, peers, religious leaders, law enforcement agencies, community leaders and other helping agencies. These efforts should focus on individualizing the programs to meet the unique needs of the at-risk population, the school, and the community.

Kushman and Kinney (1989) recommended multiple points where counselors, teachers and other school personnel must intervene. The points of intervention were: (1) student behaviors within the school, (2) student behaviors outside the school, (3) student affect, (4) student life circumstances, (5) school climate, (6) home and family, and (7) the community.

Several factors suggest potential interventions. Due to their poor academic performance, at-risk students may need more opportunity to learn (i.e., more time allowed for learning tasks). However, many at-risk students may not be able to spend extra time due to other adult responsibilities such as work or teen parenting (Capuzzi & Gross, 2000).

Secondly, at-risk students need motivation to learn. Otherwise, spending more time on learning tasks will not help. They should believe that they can succeed in school and believe in a positive future and career opportunities.

Thirdly, in addition to motivation, at-risk students need commitment. A lack of commitment characterizes many dropouts and their teachers. To assist the students, schools need teachers and counselors who themselves are strongly committed to their students and school.

Lastly, students should be empowered. They can be given some responsibilities (e.g., input into discipline policies, curriculum choices, decision-making) so that they identify themselves with school and school personnel.

An effective counselor, in collaboration with other school personnel, should tackle these risk factors and begin to develop a planned, coordinated response of prevention and treatment. A great many strategies have been tried over the years to address the problems of "at-risk" students (Anderson, 1975; Bloodworth & Fitzgerald, 1993; Fischer, 2000; Gerics & Westheimer, 1988; Grannis, 1991; Jonas, 1987; Krovertz, 1999; Liontos, 1992; MacDonald, 1999; Nasrallah, 1992; Novak, 1990; Self, Bennig, Marston, &

Magnusson, 1991; Steinmiller & Steinmiller, 1993). School counselors and other personnel may use several effective clinical and systemic approaches.

Prevention Approaches

Clinical. The *clinical approach* is often more popular with counselors because it deals with the student and his or her family. In this approach, counselors ask the question, "What's the problem with the student?" It identifies the predictors intrinsic to the student who is at risk of dropping out. This approach addresses questions in three areas: the home, personal traits or circumstances, and school behaviors (Kushman & Kinney, 1989).

1. The home: An effective counselor explores the home situation of the student, keeping in mind the socio-economic level of family, education level of the family members, any school dropouts, number of siblings, parental behaviors, use of drugs and alcohol, psychological, sexual or physical abuse in the family.
2. Personal traits or circumstances: School personnel examine the physical appearance of the student, level of self-esteem, locus of control, possible pregnancy, substance abuse, eating disorders, performance in school, and any mental disorders such as depression, anxiety, or others.
3. School behaviors: School personnel investigate the student's attendance, cutting classes, physical violence against others, reading difficulties, and problems of establishing and maintaining social relationships with others.

The above areas need a thorough examination by counselors and other school personnel to develop a planned, coordinated response of prevention and treatment. Some of the counseling strategies include special education, remediation, and alternative education.

Systemic. The *systemic approach* focuses on changing the school and the community to meet the needs of at-risk students. This approach is more difficult to implement than the clinical approach. The systemic approach works well when there is a commitment from the community, school, teachers, counselors, staff, parents, and students. The systemic approach focuses on the strong influence of social environments and the school on students' behavior and academic performance. These factors should be taken into consideration in designing schools that are responsive to the needs of all students. Factors within the school that can interfere with student achievement and serve as obstructions for at-risk students include organizational structure, procedural practices, and instructional strategies.

Intervention Approaches

It is difficult to distinguish between prevention and intervention approaches. However, intervention approaches are closely targeted to the broad prevention strategies. Intervention approaches also may be divided into clinical approaches (student and family issues) and systemic approaches (school and the community issues).

Clinical. Family members play an important role in dropout behavior. If the family is unstable and unsupportive, then the school and the social agencies must intervene by providing assistance to the students so that they can succeed in

school. Even supportive families need assistance and the school system needs to reach out to parents to establish rapport. Parents should be encouraged to participate in school activities and communicate with teachers, counselors, administrators and staff. School personnel should listen to the parents of the students. If students are to succeed, they need the support and understanding of the family members. Parenting styles can make a difference for the social and academic success of the students (Rumberger, 1993). Some parents may need assistance from counselors through parenting workshops and community resources.

The school counselor has a major role in helping at-risk students. All students should feel free to contact and communicate with the counselor on a personal level. Individual and group counseling sessions can also be organized by the counselor to assist the students. Peer counselors can be used to assist at-risk students by promoting discussion on current problems and better study skills.

Systemic. Schools should be student-centered and the curriculum should be relevant and stimulating to the students. Schools should create opportunities for understanding, trust, interactions, and caring between teachers and students. A supportive environment is essential to student success. Fortunately, due to pressures from the politicians and the community, many school systems are trying to improve the academic achievement for all students through systemic interventions. In Virginia, a Student-Based Staff Development Model was designed to help teachers become more effective in meeting their instructional roles. Aside from helping teachers provide early intervention for at-risk students, the SBSD model also promoted discussion of instructional issues among educators (Duke & Scardamaglia, 1992).

CONCLUSION

It is imperative that counseling services enhance academic performance of at-risk students in addition to raising the self-concept of the students (Beer & Beer, 1992). An alternative to clinical approaches is the systemic approach, where the focus is on changing the broader educational system to meet the particular needs of at-risk students. In this approach, it is necessary to build a flexible system around the needs of the students, i.e., a student-centered school system. Counseling services are the heart and soul of the systemic approach. Effective and experienced counselors should have training in program development and in organizational and advocacy skills. They should develop programs designed to increase student academic and personal success (Kushman & Kinney, 1989). Early problem detection and prevention should be undertaken at the elementary grades.

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The Increased Risk of Depression in Compressed Adolescence

Stacy N. Collins

Early adolescence is a period of rapid physical, intellectual and social change. Jackson and Davis (2000) suggested that early adolescence is a time of discovery where individuals have greater cognitive abilities with an accompanying increase in the capacity for complex thinking. They are better equipped to make important decisions affecting themselves and others, but their lack of experience leaves them vulnerable (Jackson & Davis). In addition, for many young adolescents the transition from elementary school to a less supportive middle school environment is associated with a decline in self-esteem. Depending upon family circumstances, some young adolescents receive the education and support needed to develop fully. Unfortunately, there are many adolescents who will not make the passage through adolescence successfully. Their basic human needs – caring relationships with adults, guidance in facing sometimes overwhelming biological and psychological changes, the security of belonging to constructive peer groups, and the perception of future opportunity – go unmet at this critical stage of life. Consequently, millions of these adolescents have great difficulty reaching their full potential. Early adolescence for these youth is a turning point towards a diminished future (Jackson & Davis).

Compressed Adolescence

Compressed adolescence can be defined as the pressure to move through adolescent developmental tasks while still in the period of middle childhood. In the past, middle childhood (ages 8 to12) was viewed as a relatively idyllic stage of life preceding the turmoil of the teenage years. However, many parents, teachers and researchers challenge the notion that middle childhood is idyllic. In fact, many assert that middle childhood no longer exists. Children simply move from young childhood directly into adolescence.

Many developmental theorists such as Erikson believe that there are stages of development throughout the life-span that correlate directly with skills that must be mastered before an individual moves on to the next stage (Shaffer, 2000). For instance, Erikson's psychosocial model shows that the major developmental tasks for children between the ages of 6 and 12 are to acquire the social and academic skills necessary to feel self-assured. Consequently, "failure to acquire these

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attributes leads to feelings of inferiority" (Shaffer, p. 42). Teachers are the most significant social agents during this time. Next, Erikson saw the developmental stage from ages 12 to 20 including tasks such as establishing basic social and occupational identities. The primary social agent is the society of peers (Shaffer). The key question for children to answer during this time is "Who Am I?" Children who are moving through a period of compressed adolescence are faced with the successful completion of diverse developmental tasks during a shorter period of time.

Further, research supports the belief that child development is being hurried or compressed. Girls in particular seem to be pressured to deal with typical teenage issues years before they reach their teens. In addition, some researchers indicate that young girls are reaching physical and cognitive maturity earlier than previous generations, but that girls are not coping well with the emotional challenges brought on by the dramatic physical and cognitive changes (Girl Scouts of the USA, 2000).

Child development occurs in three key areas: cognitive, physical and emotional (Irvin, 1996). For most girls between the ages of 8 and 12, these three areas do not develop evenly. Often, cognitive and physical development accelerates, but emotional development lags behind. The imbalance leads to stress and tension that were not formerly present in 8 to 12-year-old girls. For example, while girls may know the facts about sex and may even be physically mature, they may not fully understand what it means to be in an intimate relationship (Girl Scouts of the USA, 2000). As young girls undergo rapid changes, they need family support more than ever as a source of emotional and physical safety. However, many parents are not prepared to talk with their 8, 9 or 10-year-old daughter about sensitive topics such as sex and menstruation. The unfortunate result of this lack of communication is that girls may perceive their parents as hesitant and, subsequently, may internalize and interpret the hesitance to mean that they have done something wrong. Consequently, such misinterpretations may only exacerbate already stressful situations (Girl Scouts of the USA).

Studies have shown that the three major realms of focus for young girls between the ages of 8 and 12 are, in order of importance, family, school and social (Girl Scouts of the USA, 2000). Unlike teens, girls in this group are not yet separating or individuating themselves from the family. On the contrary, they seek consistent, reliable and practical support from family members, especially emotional support. Of the girls represented in the Girls Speak Out survey, 91% of girls aged 8 and 9 went to their mothers for advice, and 75% of girls aged 10 to 12 indicated that they still sought advice from their mothers. In addition, the overall finding of the study was that between the ages of 8 and 12, 79% of girls still believed that mothers were extremely important confidantes (Girl Scouts of the USA).

Adolescent Depression

An Australian study ("Depression in," 1997) indicated that physicians found that approximately 50% of all adolescents report depressive symptoms and 10% experience an episode of major depression. Furthermore, studies of depression indicate that girls are twice as likely as boys to experience depression and that the incidence of depression rises with increasing age ("Depression in"). In addition, the clinical features of

depression in adolescents are similar to those in adults, although depressed adolescents may appear irritable rather than sad and may complain of hypersomnia. Deterioration in school performance may be an important early sign of depression. Further, in approximately 20% of the reported cases, the adolescent remained depressed for at least one year, while 10% of cases persisted for two years. One half of all depressed adolescents experience at least one recurrence of depression and 15% of depressed adolescents commit suicide ("Depression in").

Furthermore, researchers have shown that certain hormonal changes are linked with increases in depressed mood. Consequently, early puberty onset has been implicated in girls' depressed mood. Puberty accompanied by other stressors such as school changes has been related to higher levels of depressive symptomatology in both sexes (Greenberger & Chen, 1996). Importantly, research has found that body image was the strongest unique predictor of overall feelings of self-worth for 8 to 12 year old girls (DuBois, Felner, Brand, & George, 2000). It seems apparent that if body image is the strongest predictor of self-esteem for girls this age and early puberty has been implicated in girls' depressed moods, then girls who go through "premature" adolescence are at greater risk for depression because both of those factors are present. Cognitively, these girls might be aware that they look nothing like their undeveloped peers but look more like older teens. They may be uncomfortable with the dichotomy, but do not have the language ability to express their feelings.

Stress, Family Support, and Role Strain

Stress is typically viewed as an important consideration in the development of psychological disturbance, including depression (Ostrander, Weinfurt, & Nay, 1998). Some theorists, such as Bowlby, suggested that the stress due to the absence or loss of positive and supportive social attachments can lead to depression (as cited in Ostrander et al., 1998). The family plays an important role in providing opportunities for social support and connectedness with adolescents. Research indicated that an unsupportive family environment was likely to play an important role in explaining depression in young people (Ostrander, et al., 1998). McFarlane, Bellissimo, & Norman (1995) proposed that supportive family and peer relationships should be associated with the development of social self-efficacy (SSE). Further, the researchers suggested a link between SSE and depression; the higher the SSE, the lower the depression. The main findings of the McFarlane study were that both SSE and social support were negatively associated with depression in adolescents, and, therefore, act as protective factors. Previous research suggested that family members provided social support that was effective in reducing vulnerability to depression (McFarlane et al.). Although peer influences affected the SSE rating, they did not have any notable effect on reducing vulnerability to depression. The key variable appears to be the influence the family has on the overall emotional well being of adolescents, whether chronological or compressed.

The transition to middle or junior high school is stressful for many students, especially girls, and can be accompanied by increases in psychological symptoms and declines in feelings of self-worth and in school performance (Fenzel, 2000). Fenzel found that role-strain is one of the biggest stressors faced by young adolescents. Role strain occurs when

there are conflicting or excessive demands associated with the student role (Fenzel). Sources of role strain that have been identified for young adolescents include work demands of school, treatment by teachers, and relationships with peers and parents (Fenzel). The findings of this research are consistent with other research during the past 15 years showing the damaging effects of ongoing daily stressors on adolescent well being (Fenzel).

Self-Esteem and Self-Identity

Self-esteem lies at the heart of a child's successful journey through childhood and into adolescence (Katz, 1995). Children with a healthy sense of self-esteem believe that the important adults in their lives accept them, care about them, and would go out of their way to ensure that they are safe and well. Young children's self-esteem is based largely on their perceptions of how the important adults in their lives, such as parents, judge them (Katz). Furthermore, parents play an important role in strengthening children's self-esteem by treating them respectfully, taking their views and opinions seriously, and expressing appreciation to them. It is essential that parents keep in mind that self-esteem is an important part of every child's development (Katz).

Adolescence is a critical time for the development of self-identity. Self-identity is greatly impacted by a diminished sense of self and self-esteem. Traditionally, girls aged eight and nine are confident, assertive and feel authoritative about themselves. However, they often emerge from adolescence with a poor self-image, constrained views of their future and their place in society and much less confidence about themselves and their abilities. According to the American Association of University Women's poll in Shortchanging Girls; Shortchanging America, 60% of elementary school girls surveyed say they are happy with they way they are; however, only 29% of high school girls surveyed said they were happy with the way they are (American Association of University Women, 1991). Although popular literature suggests that peers dominate the world of teenagers, the American Association of University Women survey found that adults in the family have a greater impact on adolescent's self-esteem and aspirations than peer influences. The implication is that, although peer groups are essential for socialization and the establishment of a self-identity for teens, the family remains in an influential role throughout the span of adolescence. Furthermore, high levels of self-esteem may actually function as protective factors that increase resilience to depression (DuBois et al., 1999).

Family Patterns and Depression

Children and teenagers sometimes experience bouts of helplessness, hopelessness, and despair that are diagnosed as major depression, and yet researchers have been unable to determine whether depressed youths display an early version of adult depression or a different mood disorder (B.B., 2001). There appears, however, to be a strong family connection between adult and teenage depression in the same family. Family members of depressed adolescents show markedly elevated rates of major depression (B.B.). Research on the family context of adolescent depression indicates that depressed adolescents tend to come from distressed families (Shiner & Marmorstein, 1998). In numerous outpatient studies, families of depressed adolescents are described as less cohesive, secure, communicative, warm,

and supportive and as more tense, antagonistic, and critical relative to the families of normal adolescent controls (Shiner & Marmorstein).

Research by Nilzon and Palmerus (1997) found an association between depressive tendencies in adolescents and less positive relationships with parents, the experience of major life events, patterns of strict control and lack of monitoring. Family factors that also provide clues to patterns of depression in children of middle school age and early adolescence include open conflicts, divorce, rigidity, enmeshment and the presence of maternal depression (Nilzon & Palmerus).

Parenting Behaviors

Of concern is whether parents of children with elevated depressive symptoms differ in their patterns of child-rearing behavior from those whose children do not suffer depressive symptoms. The purpose is not to blame parents for the child's depression, but rather to determine if parenting styles contributed to the struggle young children faced with the onset of compressed or "premature" adolescence. An impressive body of research exists linking parenting practices such as a critical and derogatory parenting style with aggressive externalizing behavior in children and adolescents (Ge, Best, Conger, & Simons, 1996). There is also emerging evidence suggesting that parenting practices are related to child and adolescent internalization of problems, especially depressive symptoms (Ge et al.). Recent studies indicated that parents of children with elevated depressive symptoms displayed skill deficits in parenting, family management and family problem solving. Repeated hostile confrontations with irritable parents represent important daily stressors that may increase a child's psychological distress (Ge et al.). Also, Ge et al. found that, consistent with the recent emphasis on the importance of affective dimensions of parenting, both fathers' and mothers' low warmth and high hostility increased risk for co-occurrence of adolescent conduct problems and depressive symptoms. Consequently, the Ge study provided support for including parenting behaviors among the list of risk factors (e.g., poor peer relations, cognitive deficiencies) for the co-occurrence of adolescent adjustment problems. In observational studies of families with preadolescent children, parents of depressed children displayed less positive, rewarding and supportive behaviors than did parents in comparison families (Sheeber & Sorensen, 1998). In addition, the results of the Sheeber and Sorensen study indicated that adolescent depression occurred in the context of distressed mother-child relationships, that depressed adolescents reported that their families were less cohesive, that their parents were less accepting of them, and that they had fewer and less satisfying sources of social support (Sheeber & Sorensen). Research also indicated that an adolescent's lack of family and social support influenced the presence of depressive symptoms more than the lack of peer intimacy or other adolescent problems (Lasko & Field, 1996).

Mediating Factors

Psychological and environmental resources, also referred to as personal coping resources and social support, tend to moderate the impact of stress and strain on well being (Fenzel, 2000). When using social resources in times of stress, young adolescents can seek support from peers, parents and other significant adults in their lives. The problem with this

concept as it applies to "premature" adolescents is that children in middle childhood use their parents first for support, and, if there is conflict at home regarding parental acceptance and understanding for the child, this needed support will not be present. Therefore, the "premature" adolescent is potentially left with an inadequate support system. The family is the primary context in which children live and, as a result, contributes significantly to determining adolescent behavior.

On a more positive note, Cornwell and Eggebeen (1996) stated that a 1990 study indicated that, compared to earlier cohorts, a larger proportion of young adolescents lived in families that had the potential to provide support in the form of human and social capital. This improvement in the family circumstances of adolescents was associated with declining fertility, increasing educational attainment, and, until recently, decreasing poverty (Cornwell & Eggebeen). What this means is that there are greater numbers of young adolescents who live in advantaged family contexts; however, improved contexts do not mean adolescents themselves are necessarily doing better. Two of the primary challenges faced by today's families are meeting economic needs and coping with negative peer influences. The developmental tasks of early adolescence (personal autonomy) are more often than not accompanied by difficult behaviors, such as defiance. The way in which adults respond to these behaviors can trigger a smooth or rocky transition into adulthood. Success in developmental tasks and positive interactions with adults may reduce the need that some adolescents feel to engage in risky behaviors (Irvin, 1996). Also, viewing young adolescent development from a broader perspective may help the adults who share their lives to accept, if not condone, the behaviors that result from working on the tasks before them (Irvin). According to Irvin, some of the developmental tasks include learning how to handle a more mature body, forming a sexual identity, and continuing to progress with reading and writing, as well as beginning to explore career options. Young adolescents have developed the ability to consider the thoughts of others, and, therefore, often assume that they are the focus of other people's perspectives. Cognitive growth and development allow adolescents the capacity to become acutely aware of themselves, their person and ideas. As a result, they frequently become egocentric, self-conscious, and introspective (Irvin).

The Role of School Counselors

Counselors need to understand the developmental tasks associated with adolescence in order to form positive relationships with adolescents (Irvin, 1996). All children are at risk for not completing developmental tasks; however, parents and teachers play a significant role in assisting children through their interactions with them. An understanding and appreciation of the normal behaviors necessary to accomplish developmental tasks should govern responses. Cognitively, parents are aware that the young person is only eight, nine, or ten years old, but how is the parent going to reconcile a developing womanly body on the chronologically young child? How is a parent going to be in a position to assist the compressed adolescent with the inevitable confusion that occurs when the child is unable to verbalize an understanding of what the confusion is about? How is a parent going to be prepared to be warm and supportive of a person who was one day a child and woke

up the next day a woman? How is a parent going to relate to the moodiness of the young adolescent?

The middle childhood aged individual turned "premature" adolescent still relies heavily upon parental approval, warmth, acceptance and communication for a greater sense of self-esteem. This writer suggests that two possible scenarios could occur, both of which would be a no win situation for the child and the family. The first possible scenario is that the parents will become more rigid with their child in an attempt to enforce family rules and boundaries, and to preserve childhood. The consequence of this will be resistance on the part of the "premature" adolescent and a greater sense of role-confusion. Another possible scenario is that the parents will become more permissive with their child and in many ways push the child into full-fledged adolescence complete with discussions of boys, dating, and fashion. Without communication, caring and acceptance, the child will feel a tremendous lack of emotional support and will experience a decline in self-esteem. As a result, the child may develop depressive symptoms similar to those found in older adolescents, but with the additional stress of coping with changing family roles at a time when the family is supposed to be a solid foundation for the child. School counselors, through psycho-educational programs, can instruct teachers and parents in ways to provide this needed foundation by effectively handling the developmental needs of the young adolescent.

School counselors also are in a unique position to mediate the effects of compressed adolescence through individual and small group counseling. For instance, in a 1990 study of adolescent depression, Kahn and Kehle found that short-term cognitive-behavioral therapy was an effective treatment modality for the reduction of depression in middle school aged children. Treatment included cognitive restructuring, social skills training, nonspecific behavioral problem solving, relaxation training and a self-modeling approach. This study was novel because no other research study had applied conventional treatments for depression to children as young as 12 years of age.

In addition, feminist counseling is a treatment approach that directly addresses the stressors faced by adolescent females (Sands, 1998). Counselors who use the feminist model of counseling use a unique counseling approach differing from traditional models in its emphasis on recognizing societal and cultural factors that contribute to depression in young women (Sands). The counselor, working from a feminist approach, helps the client gain a personal understanding that there is nothing inherently wrong with her (Sands). Consequently, the adolescent becomes empowered to make necessary changes. An additional benefit of a feminist model of counseling is that the female perspective is valued. Women must learn to value their female characteristics and validate their own, female-centered views of the world (Sands). Female-centered values are empathy, cooperation, intuition, interdependence and relationship focus. The counselor who uses a feminist model of counseling does not need to be a woman nor do the clients need to be girls. Use of the feminist model of counseling is a valuable tool applicable to mixed gender groups as well.

In addition, school counselors can utilize the 28-minute video entitled "Day for Night: Recognizing Teenage Depression" released by the Depression

and Related Affective Disorders Association (DRADA, 1999) in affiliation with Johns Hopkins University. This video is endorsed by the American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry and includes an educational pamphlet and teacher's guide as well ("Resources," 1999).

CONCLUSION

The key finding of the research on compressed adolescence suggests that "premature" or compressed adolescents are at greater risk for suffering long-term, repeated bouts of depression for a variety of reasons. Perhaps most significant among them is the idea of role-strain. Studies have been conducted to examine the role strain adolescents face when transitioning from elementary to junior high or middle school with respect to peer relationships, increased teacher demand, and greater demands for independence. What the researchers have not evaluated is the parent-child role strain which accompanies the early or premature adolescent development. Finally, there are many treatment modalities available to school counselors such as cognitive-behavioral therapy, feminist counseling approaches and psycho-educational tools.

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Transformed School Counseling Roles: Preparing Counselors for the 21st Century

Carol Vanzile-Tamsen
Susan R. Boes

Recent reform efforts have called for school counselors to place more emphasis on students' academic achievement in the 21st century (Baker, 2000; Bobby, 1999; College Board, 1986; Hart & Jacobi, 1992; Kaplan & Evans, 1999). Meeting academic needs of students, along with their personal, social, and career needs, has long been part of the traditional school counselor role, but the refocus on academic achievement has altered the role of the school counselor to include that of an educational leader. In addition, the accountability movement has continued to grow (Fairchild, 1993; Fairchild & Seeley, 1995), and all school staff members are accountable for the education of students (Drummond, 2000). Part of the changing role of school counselors is to become better at assessing and communicating about accountability issues. The purposes of this article are to discuss rationales for the 21st century roles of school counselors and the competencies that fit the altered roles. Another purpose is to suggest counselor preparation course work and clinical experiences for integration into training programs.

SCHOOL COUNSELING IN TRANSITION

Traditional School Counseling Roles

Confusion about the role school counselors play is not new to the profession (Herbert, 1985). Historically, school counselors have been viewed as administrative staff members, lunchroom coordinators, registrars, directors of guidance, and/ or magicians. In the 1980's, The American School Counseling Association (ASCA) described the role of the school counselor as "developmental," which fosters learning and student growth. Developmental interventions were to focus on academic and career information in addition to personal and social concerns. The following tasks were delineated: to provide structured guidance via individual and small group counseling, to consult with staff and faculty and plan staff development training for teachers and administrators, and to coordinate other school-based guidance activities including working with parents.

While these suggested roles were being emphasized across the nation in individual comprehensive guidance plans, Herbert (1985) reminded counselors of the need for support

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from administrators and parents. Comprehensive guidance plans with distinct roles for counselors and other stakeholders were found to be effective and helped to alleviate former views of school counselors as "sole owners" of guidance plans (p. 2). Bush, Benson, and Drier (1977) found it is equally important to promote the comprehensive career guidance program as the project of the total-school community. Involvement of counselors, teachers, students, parents, administrators, and members of community groups added a wide range of knowledge, vision, and topics of interest to the planning. Bush et al. also suggested involving graduates, students who have left the school without diplomas, and employers.

Comprehensive guidance plans can also delineate distinct tasks for school counselors. A review of a small sample of early comprehensive guidance programs across the nation revealed similar counselor roles (Bush, et al., 1977; Boldosser & others, 1993; Oregon Department of Education, 1984; Mississippi Counseling Association, 1987; Office of Planning and Development, 1984). These roles included tasks such as guidance curriculum; vocational planning and decision-making; assessment of student competencies, interests, abilities; individual and group counseling; remedial program intervention; and staff development. In addition, many early program plans included student appraisal, consultation with other professionals, students, teachers, parents, and administrators, and assistance with educational planning for instructive purposes. Some of these early plans also indicated an important function was to advance academic achievement and make referrals to outside agencies. Although many of the roles were similar, variation in duties occurred between and within states and districts on the time spent on each role and on priority of tasks.

In sum, the traditional roles of school counselors were derived from a developmental perspective and included working to meet personal, social, academic, and career needs of students. However, in reality, the job description of a school counselor usually included extraneous assignments, such as clerical assistant and lunchroom monitor. Some state systems, such as Georgia (Office of Planning and Development, 1984), noted school counselors' jobs should include "no more clerical or extraneous assignments than assigned to any other professional school staff member" (p. 5), and Georgia called for the elimination of these duties from school counselors' job descriptions. It appears some states are returning to key roles and away from extraneous duties in order to more effectively meet students' changing needs in the 21st century.

Changing School Counseling Roles for the 21st Century

As early as the 1960's, Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) drew attention to the disproportionately lesser emphasis on academic achievement for children from low income and minority groups (Jennings, 2000). Following this, *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform* (1983) linked lesser expectations for academic achievement to children from low income and minority groups. Public education was criticized and schools and communities began to work for reform. Hart and Jacobi (1992) reported that minority students and students from low-income families were leaving school unprepared for jobs and life in society, and called for reform in schools so that all students are challenged and given appropriate support for high academic accomplishment. Since 1992, Hart and Jacobi have called for an increase in involvement of stakeholders both outside and within the school. They believe, school counselors can be key leaders to involve appropriate community groups and referral services to meet students' personal/social needs and help with career concerns. When national school reform began,

counselors were left out of the planning. Today counselors are very much involved (Campbell & Dahir, 1997; The National Program for Transforming School Counseling Initiative, 1997). School counselors are in a position to observe students in need of help and to collaborate with appropriate others to meet student needs and to help make systemic change. School counselor involvement includes working with appropriate outside agencies and community services as well as coordinating services within the school.

Campbell and Dahir (1997) report that ASCA recognized the need for change and addressed the future of school counseling through the National Standards for School Counseling. These standards emphasize school counselor involvement in academic achievement and *collaboration with appropriate others for student success*. Counselors are expected to work with teachers, special educators, administrators, parents, and community leaders to assist students. Campbell and Dahir further address the need for school counselors to be involved with their school's academic mission and to promote equal access to resources for all students. The standards suggest that the three main areas with which school counselors should be concerned are academic, career, and personal/social development. In the academic area, counselors help students develop such skills as decision-making, problem solving, goal setting, critical thinking, logical reasoning, and interpersonal communication. Many of these same skills are helpful for students in career and personal development. In the career development area, counselors help students develop positive attitudes toward work, skills to facilitate school-to-work and job-to-job transitions, and to understand the connection between success in school and success in work. Finally, in the personal/social area, counselors support and maximize students' personal growth and enhance their educational and career development.

A report by the national task force on minority high achievement (College Board, 1999) addressed the chronic shortage of minority students who academically achieve at high levels. This group, like the Education Trust (1997), reported on several initiatives which, when used collectively and with systemic change, can positively impact the achievement of all students. Both groups found change occurs as a diverse group of stakeholders, including groups within the schools, minority parents, community groups, and representative groups in higher education becomes involved.

Encouraged by previous reports, the DeWitt-Wallace Readers Digest Fund, administered by the Education Trust, sponsored a multi-year, multi-phase initiative to transform school counseling (The National Program for Transforming School Counseling, 1997). The Transforming School Counseling Initiative (TSC) focuses training in five arenas. The TSC involves a shift of emphasis from personal/social development to academic achievement. School counselors work collaboratively with appropriate others outside school settings to address serious emotional problems of students. Within the school setting counselors continue to work with students on less serious personal/social issues and on academic and career guidance. Another focus of school counselors involves counselors acting directly as leaders on the education team. The transforming school counseling initiative supports the use of a more focused mission because it allows counselors to be directly involved with school improvement. Systemic change is a necessity because, all too often both in the present and historically, stakeholders have been influential in assigning inappropriate tasks to school counselors (Baker, 2000). The new 2001 CACREP standards also reflect these transformed roles (CACREP, 2001).

In sum, the 21st century school counselor should be an educational leader (CACREP, 2001; Education Trust, 1997; Kaplan & Evans,

1999) and an advocate for students, working to enhance the achievement of all students (ASCA, 1999; CACREP, 2001; Campbell & Dahir, 1997; Education Trust, 1997; Kaplan & Evans, 1999). Counselors should have collaboration skills that allow them to facilitate group efforts that enhance achievement (ASCA, 1999; CACREP, 2001; Education Trust, 1997; Kaplan & Evans, 1999; Walsh, Howard, & Buckley, 1999) and brief, solution-focused counseling skills. School counselors also should be competent at providing large and small group guidance and be skilled at coordinating the services of the counseling office (ASCA, 1999; CACREP, 2001; Education Trust, 1997; Kaplan & Evans, 1999). Finally, counselors should be competent in assessing student needs and using data from a variety of sources for designing programs and advocating for student needs (CACREP, 2001; Education Trust, 1997).

Some critics will argue that school counselors have been trained in these skill areas and have been practicing these skills since the dawn of the profession (Jackson, Burnham, Boes, & Comas, 2000). Burnham and Jackson (2000), however, in conducting research on what counselors are trained to do versus what they actually do, found that there is a significant difference between the two. Burnham and Jackson attribute this problem to the extraneous duties that school counselors must perform in schools. Thus, the additional transformed role of school counselors as advocate should include being an advocate within their school systems for less extraneous duties. A leadership role often overlaps with the roles of advocacy and collaboration. School counselors within leadership roles advocate for themselves, their school, and their students.

PREPARING 21ST CENTURY SCHOOL COUNSELORS

Fairchild (1993) suggests that counselor-training programs need to do a better job in preparing school counselors for their role in the schools. He emphasizes that the curriculum should be practical and focused. VanZile-Tamsen, Boes, and Nietfeld (1999) suggest that, additionally, the coursework should involve more hands-on activities that encourage school counselors to act collaboratively with others. Practicing actual job roles and tasks while receiving critical feedback from instructors is very important to ensuring that school counselors can perform these same skills once they begin working in a school. Additionally, change that starts in a training program needs to involve attention to National Standards and other current trends and initiatives such as the Transforming School Counseling Initiative currently promoted at a national level.

Below, each of the five arenas of competencies is outlined and suggestions for implementing the teaching of these competencies are offered. The suggestions include ways to build these competencies into coursework and clinical requirements. Some of these activities may be in practice already; however, it is important to understand how existing activities can fit into the new framework of preparation. In addition to the suggestions outlined below, counselor educators can encourage counselors-in-training (CIT's) to attend workshops that address these arenas.

Leadership

Successful leadership includes: promoting, planning, and implementing prevention/intervention programs, college/career activities, course selection/placement activities, and social/personal management and decision-making activities (CACREP, 2001; Education Trust, 1997); using data to show student outcomes, achievement gaps, and inequity in educational and career opportunities (CACREP; Education Trust; Clark & Stone, 2000); reaching out to adults to provide additional one-to-one support to students (Education Trust); defining and carrying out guidance and counseling in the school (ASCA,

1999, CACREP; Education Trust); eliminating barriers to student success (Clark & Stone); facilitating change within the school (Campbell & Dahir, 1997); and acting as a leader in school improvement (CACREP; Campbell & Dahir, 1997; Kaplan & Evans, 1999). Courses are being developed independently by counseling programs, and in conjunction with educational leadership departments, to teach school counselors leadership skills (Shoffner & Williamson, 2000) beyond those learned in a group counseling course. Designing these leadership courses in conjunction with educational leadership departments has several advantages (Shoffner & Williamson). First, it allows counselors and administrators to learn about their respective roles in the school. Second, it allows them to practice collaborating and working cooperatively to meet student needs. Finally, it allows those in training programs to begin to develop collaborative networks before they are employed in schools. Some programs also design their own courses with faculty whose competencies include leadership training.

Counselor Preparation Coursework to Address Competencies. In any course, CIT's can practice publicly taking a stand on an issue and practice as group leader when doing small group activities (Clark & Stone, 2000). In an introductory course for professional school counseling, CIT's can resolve leadership scenarios individually or in groups; complete and interpret a leadership style instrument and discuss how the results may impact their role as leader; and develop a personal leadership mission statement, updated throughout the training. In a group counseling class, CIT's can lead task-oriented groups and practice dealing with interpersonal differences/conflicts. In a multicultural class, CIT's can examine personal backgrounds as they relate to group dynamics and practice leading groups made up of people from different multicultural backgrounds.

Clinical Work to Address Competencies. CIT's can complete the following activities: sit on school improvement committees to observe (Clark & Stone, 2000); shadow a school administrator to observe school leadership activities; re-take the leadership style instrument and reflect on changes; revise their mission statement based on site experiences; and promote the role of leadership with site supervisors if supervisors do not see themselves in that role.

Advocacy

The advocacy role includes using data to provide evidence of school-wide outcomes (CACREP, 2001; Education Trust, 1997); using data to effect change (ASCA, 1999; CACREP, 2001; Education Trust); working to broaden students' experiences and exposures to career information; and working to place students in rigorous courses and garnering support to help those students achieve success (ASCA, 1994; Education Trust; Kaplan & Evans, 1999).

Counselor Preparation Coursework to Address Competencies. In an introductory school counseling course, CIT's can brainstorm qualities of effective advocates, rate themselves on each quality, and interpret how effective they will be based on these qualities. Counselors-in-training could also develop a personal advocacy mission statement in which they reflect on strengths and goals. Another assignment might be reviewing popular movies or reading books in which someone advocated for a student or family (e.g., *Good Will Hunting*) and discuss the effective skills that were demonstrated. In a multicultural class, they can work in dyads expressing feelings and experiences relating to issues of ethnicity, sexual orientation, gender, stereotypes, and discrimination and reflect on the difficulty of discussing these issues, as well as what they have learned about themselves and others (Locke, as cited in House, 1999); and respond to scenarios in which they must advocate for a

multicultural group. In a research or assessment class, CIT's can identify an area where they believe inequity may exist and develop a plan to collect data to determine if it truly does.

Clinical Work to Address Competencies. Counselors-in-training can prepare guidance lessons relating to discrimination and stereotypes or maintain a reflective journal of all the ways they observe teachers and counselors advocating for students on a daily basis. Additionally they can reflect on their own behaviors and how these behaviors evidenced their belief in helping all children to be successful in school and in their commitment to change.

Teaming and Collaboration

Teaming and collaboration are counselor roles that focus on finding resources and cooperating with others to improve student achievement and success (Boes, VanZile-Tamsen, & Jackson, 2001). The following competencies will promote success in the teaming and collaboration role: 1) participating and consulting with teams to help meet student needs, solve school problems, and address equity/diversity issues (ASCA, 1999; CACREP, 2001; Education Trust, 1997; Kaplan & Evans, 1999); 2) collaborating with other helping agents within the school and community to provide support and assistance for students, as well as incentives for learning (ASCA; CACREP; Campbell & Dahir, 1997; Education Trust); and 3) teaming with school staff to design and implement professional development activities that teach staff members appropriate methods of meeting student needs (ASCA; Education Trust).

Counselor Preparation Coursework to Address Competencies. In the introduction to the counseling profession course, CIT's can make a diagram of all the individuals and resources that touch a student's academic life. The CIT can discuss appropriate methods they would use to get stakeholders involved in collaborative efforts and develop a prototype for a contract between the counseling office and community agency delineating the steps that each would take to meet an individual student's needs. In all courses, a variety of cooperative learning activities can be used which require teamwork for success. In a counseling methods course, CIT's can investigate community resources through directories and compile a list of appropriate regional agencies. In the group counseling course, they can locate and summarize an article on the mechanics, or the process, of collaboration.

Clinical Work to Address Competencies. Counselors-in-training can update or create a community referral directory for the school where they are doing their internship and share it with the internship class. Practicum and internship students can develop a diagram of personal resources that will help them fulfill their roles as school counselors; use the reflective journal to note observations of the counselor collaborating with someone within the school; shadow a helping professional in a community agency; investigate the purpose of the parent-teacher organization and attend a meeting to observe and reflect on how they will utilize such an organization as a counselor; and sit in on a parent conference with the supervising counselor.

Counseling and Coordination

Because school counselors have numerous short-term encounters with students, it is advantageous for school counselors to have a variety of counseling and coordinating skills. These skills include conducting brief, solution-focused counseling sessions with individuals, groups, and families (ASCA, 1999; CACREP, 2001; Education Trust, 1997; Kaplan & Evans, 1999); coordinating school and community resources to meet academic, as well as non-academic, needs of students (ASCA; CACREP;

Education Trust; Kaplan, & Evans; Walsh, Howard, & Buckley, 1999); assisting staff in the development of high aspirations for all students and identifying means to support those aspirations (ASCA, 1994; Education Trust; Kaplan & Evans); and coordinating training for all school staff on ways to meet student needs on a school-wide basis (ASCA; CACREP; Education Trust).

Counselor Preparation Coursework to Address Competencies. In the introductory professional school counseling course, CIT's can shadow a counselor, record the percentage of time spent in each type of activity, and share these percentages with the class. The use of brief, solution-focused counseling can be emphasized in counseling methods and theories courses. The concept of large group guidance can be incorporated in the group counseling course. In the appraisal course, CIT's can review the use of needs assessments for program development. The human development course can include an expanded focus on cognitive learning and the latest research on learning strategies, and also include discussion of the factors related to school violence and its prevention. In career development, CIT's can locate and critique available instruments that help individuals explore interests, abilities, and personality, as these characteristics relate to career choice. Also, they can interview an employer to develop an employment profile discussing employer opportunities, necessary training, the application process, and other aspects of employment.

Clinical Work to Address Competencies. Counselors-in-training can develop and pilot an intake instrument with class members; videotape a session where the intern specifically uses brief, solution-focused counseling, or design and present a group guidance session on career issues and self-regulated learning which emphasizes equal career and education opportunities for all. Other clinical assignments could be to prepare a handout for students on career and academic resources available in the community; prepare and present a guidance lesson in which students learn about the amount of education required for and the rewards related to particular careers; become acquainted with the site's plan for school emergencies, such as school violence and suicide and use the reflective journal to discuss emergency preparations they will make as a counselor.

Assessment and Use of Data

Specific competencies for effective use of data are: assessing and interpreting student needs and recognizing how student background can influence results (Campbell & Dahir, 1997; Education Trust, 1997; Kaplan & Evans, 1999); establishing and measuring outcomes of counseling activities (CACREP, 2001; Education Trust; Fairchild & Seeley, 1995; Walsh, Howard, & Buckley, 1999); identifying school barriers to learning, inclusion, and/or academic success for all students (Education Trust); and presenting student outcome data to the school leadership team when planning for change (Campbell & Dahir; Education Trust). Some school counselor training programs are developing courses in research and assessment solely for school counselors and teach specific uses of data for counseling purposes (Jackson, Snow, Phillips, Boes, & Rolle, 1999).

Counselor Preparation Coursework to Address Competencies. The appraisal course can be supplemented with learning experiences geared toward the new competencies. The course also could emphasize the importance of the needs assessment for collecting useful data. In addition, CIT's need to be exposed to computer-adapted and computer-assisted instruments. They could be given practice in interpreting various types of norm-referenced scores and reporting scores to students and

parents. The use of spreadsheets and statistical software can be encouraged as a way to manage student and school outcome data and to track trends in terms of equal access to courses and programs. Student presentations can be the medium through which they practice presenting this data to stakeholders to advocate for student needs. The traditional research course can emphasize program evaluation and the importance of data presentation for advocacy.

Clinical Work to Address Competencies. Counselors-in-training can become acquainted with the types of data counselors collect and manage. Additionally they can prepare a report about the internship site that contains important data about the population they serve (e.g., gender, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, minority enrollment in advanced classes, general classes, and vocational classes) or identify the different instruments that are used at the site and gather information about the quality of these instruments. They also can assist with the administration and compilation of a needs assessment and school-wide standardized testing as well as become familiar with the types of data requested from schools by stakeholders, such as the community and the state department of education.

CONCLUSIONS

Baker (2000) reported that challenges to school counselors' effectiveness in the 21st century include the high ratio of students to counselors, time spent on nonguidance activities, and the necessity of school counselors to take on leadership roles. With appropriate training in the new competencies set forth by the American School Counselor Association and development of new roles designed by such initiatives as the Transforming School Counseling project, school counselors can become educational leaders. As leaders, school counselors can work with state education groups advocating for lower student to counselor ratios and for more appropriate job descriptions that promote roles with less nonguidance activities. An understanding of the complex issues of students in the 21st Century and guided practice using the skills connected to these new roles can lead school counselors to have a stronger impact on student achievement.

Although no empirical research has yet been conducted to assess the impact of these suggestions for improving counselor preparation, informal feedback from practicing school counselors enrolled in specialist programs and/or at conference content sessions indicates that these changes are worthwhile and can help students enrolled in training programs become more effective counselors. Training programs that are aware of the changing needs of students in the schools and that are willing to make programmatic changes can take great strides in preparing 21st century school counselors for their new roles.

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